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ABSTRACT

In this book, the findings of a study on schools within schools are described. The professional research and literature on alternative public education, with a focus on schools within schools, is explored. Based on the research, a list of elements characteristic to and useful for the implementation and perpetuation of optional alternative programs is compiled. Using this list, the evolution of an open alternative in Boston's Parmenter Elementary School is examined. Ten essential elements of Schools Within Schools are defined and four primary factors for successful programs are established: (1) all programs within a school must be viewed as legitimate educational environments; (2) the principal and faculty are prime facilitators of this desired perception; (3) a shared decision-making approach is appropriate to develop and operate an optional alternative; (4) administrators must be aware of the possibility and potential dangers of unintentional segregation by socioeconomic level, race, religion, etc. Recommendations are made for further research. A lengthy bibliography is included. (Author/WI)

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SCHOOLS WITHIN SCHOOLS

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An Answer
To
The Public School Dilemma

CLEMENT A. SELDIN, Ed. D.

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Introduction by Mario D. Fantini

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Clement A. Seldin's expertise in public school education has grown from a solid foundation of related academic training, as well as substantial work experience in the field. His educational background includes a B.A. in Psychology from Adelphi University, 1970; an Ed.M. in Curriculum and Instruction from Boston University, 1971; and an Ed.D. in Elementary Education, University of Massachusetts at Amherst, 1976. A former public school teacher, Dr. Seldin has taught extensively in a pioneering School Within a School.

At present, Dr. Seldin is Coordinator of Inservice Education at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst, where he also instructs preservice teacher trainees. In addition, he serves as an educational evaluator and consultant in the public school system. His most current research focuses on the compatible matching of teaching and learning styles. This theme served as the topic of a paper which he presented in 1977 in Newcastle, England (the Third International Conference on Improving University Teaching) and was published in the Bulletin of Educational Research.

Dr. Seldin resides with his family in Pelham, Massachusetts.

TO ARLENE

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PREFACE

What are Schools Within Schools? A brief working definition is: two or more optional alternative educational environments which coexist within one school. An intriguing idea? Yes. Also an important and workable one. This approach is thriving in some public schools and should be available in many more.

Since my work with this topic began as a doctoral dissertation, the style of this book reflects the academic nature of such a study. Hopefully it will provide a systemized process for the serious student of Schools Within Schools.

I wish to extend sincere gratitude to Dr. R. Mason Bunker who served as superior mentor for my doctoral studies. Equally worthy of special acknowledgement is Dr. Mario D. Fantini, whose extensive research provided impetus and foundation for this work.

Clement A. Seldin
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INTRODUCTION by Mario D. Fantini

If one were to survey all the books written about our public schools during the last ten years, at least two major trends would surface: (1) many educators choose to criticize public education yet offer no possible solutions for consideration, and (2) many others claim the answer to all our educational problems rests in adopting a particular system or approach, i.e., open education, multicultural education, the back-to-basics approach, etc. It is somewhat remarkable that so many well educated and highly experienced individuals perceive a single philosophy as being an educational nirvana!

For years, I have supported another direction. I have suggested that rather than putting all students into a uniform educational environment, we would do better by establishing community options, based on choice, and appropriate for the population being served. In other words, each community should offer several alternatives which address the diverse needs of the students and teachers. Would it not make great sense to have open classrooms, traditional classrooms, and perhaps classrooms geared toward the arts or multicultural emphasis, at each grade level? With the advice of teachers and counselors, parents and students could select the classroom environment which best matches the student learning style — an environment with a teacher who has chosen that approach as being in harmony with his or her personal teaching style. There is no magic in the fact that the provision of choice, in itself, is an important first step for creating a generally favorable climate and attitude of cooperation and commitment.

In the last few years, many school systems across the country have established options. Although interest has been growing, the number of good books on the subject could easily be carried in one arm.

When I was asked to consider writing an introduction to *SCHOOLS WITHIN SCHOOLS: AN ANSWER TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DILEMMA* by Clement Seldin, I was pleased to accept. As I read the book, I grew excited. In a very clear, well organized fashion, Seldin has created an important work for everyone interested in providing the best public school education for our children. Seldin provides a realistic and logical perspective in his examination of how our public school system can reflect our pluralistic society. He presents an approach by which student and teacher differences can be actively respected within a single school (called a School Within a School) to meet our children's developmental needs and to capitalize on our teachers' inherent styles. And, in a fascinating manner, Seldin analyzes one school where programs of choice coexist.

There is something for everyone in *SCHOOLS WITHIN SCHOOLS: AN ANSWER TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DILEMMA*. In a useful review of the research and literature on options in public school education, Seldin includes a discussion of the change agent, categories of educational options, the growth and development of options, and support from teacher education programs in our institutions of higher education. One of the especially interesting aspects of this review is a discussion of the many potential problems confronting a school with coexisting educational environments. Seldin analyzes such "roadblocks" including: overenthusiasm, overexposure, stigma, alternatives established by mandate, inadequate planning time, funding, labeling, superiority complexes, unspecific goals and objectives, and discriminatory options. In a constructive manner, particular strategies are identified which can possibly hinder the development of these "roadblocks."

Integral to the implementation and development of optional alternative programs within one school are ten characteristics, or elements, as Seldin labels them. It is suggested that they are fundamental prerequisites for Schools Within Schools. Each element is singularly important. Together, they provide a powerful force for successful innovation.

Let me borrow directly from the text of the book to tell you some of the important questions addressed by Seldin's ten elements.

1. What kind of theoretical framework and objectives should optional alternatives possess?

2. What is the optimal size of an optional alternative program?

3. Who should be involved in decisions relating to the implementation and perpetuation of the optional alternative?

4. How should teacher and student participation in the optional alternative be determined?

5. What are the implications of student race, religion, sex, and ethnic background in the design of optional alternatives?

6. How should the various programs within the school be perceived, in terms of relative value, by faculty, administration, children and community?

7. How should an optional alternative's developmental and operational cost factors compare to that of the conventional program?

8. How should student placement decisions be determined?

9. What should be the nature of a support structure in a school with coexisting alternative programs?

10. What kind of evaluation should be implemented in an optional alternative?

After a thorough discussion of these questions, Seldin goes an important step further. He investigates the development of one Massachusetts School Within a School (Parmenter School in Arlington, Massachusetts), in terms of those ten characteristics, and documents the extent to which that school acted consistently with them. This is exceedingly helpful for it provides a fascinating integration of theory and practice. We gain insight into the Parmenter School's formula for becoming a generally successful School Within a School. Yet, we learn of an unintentional segregation of students by socio-economic class, one of the potential dangers discussed by Seldin.

Ralph Waldo Emerson once said, "The secret of education lies in respecting the pupil." While it is doubtful that Emerson envisioned Schools Within Schools, somehow I think he would have been most pleased to witness their development. Clearly, Schools Within Schools demonstrate an active respect for the pupil. In addition, they demonstrate respect for the teacher and globally for our diverse, pluralistic culture.

The provision of choice for students is an inevitable direction in our fast-changing and diverse society. What is not inevitable is the provision of good, well-planned and appropriate choice. This is an issue of educator responsibility — an issue to which Seldin significantly expands our knowledge and understanding.

Nationally acclaimed as a major education figure, Dr. Mario D. Fantini is a leader in the movement for increasing educational options within our public schools. He is author of numerous articles and books on public school education. Presently, Dr. Fantini is Professor and Dean of Education at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

I

NATURE OF THE STUDY

Statement of the Problem

Schools have been the target of criticism for many years. Professional educators and nonprofessionals alike have documented many of the problems in our educational system. From Mayer's *The Schools* (1961) to Kozol's *Death at an Early Age* (1967) to Silberman's *Crisis in the Classroom* (1970), American education has been scrutinized. In the midst of criticism, the educational system has responded by instituting new technological advances and organizational changes. Technology has produced new audio-visual equipment such as portable video-tape machines, individualized electronic reading and math programs, as well as complex foreign language laboratories. Video media and tape recorders are commonly utilized in many classrooms. In addition to these technological innovations, organizational changes have become a part of many American public schools. Curriculum reform, non-grading, programmed instruction, team teaching, open space schools, open classroom schools, and community based schools are examples of such changes in organization and structure.

This effort to improve American education has taken on immense proportions. In the last twenty years, there has been a major educational reform movement. Almost daily, new books on educational advances are published. The federal government maintains Title IV grants to fund innovative projects in education. Millions of dollars and millions of human hours are devoted to this grand movement (Cass, 1973; Smith, Burke & Barr, 1974).

Many of these reformers advocate one type of classroom or teaching style and argue that a particular approach will maximize the learning of children. Yet, in this assumption, there lies an inherent question: can any one educational environment provide stimulus for all children? In examining this question, the work of Piaget, Combs, Fantini, Bussis and Chittenden, and Hunt has relevance.

Piaget suggests that there are several developmental stages through which every child must pass. The rate at which a child develops is specific to the particular child as are his-her past experiences which provide the basis for true learning (Ginsburg and Opper, 1969). Since children have individual past experiences and proceed down the "developmental road" at different speeds, no single educational environment can provide optimum stimulus for all children at every moment.

Combs (1971) suggests that learning is based on the discovery of personal meaning resulting from interaction with data. This personal meaning, individual to a learner, is based on past experiences. For example, two children interacting with the same data may result in only one child's discovery of personal meaning leading to the acquisition of those data. The other child's readiness to develop new meaning may be inhibited by too little past experience with the data or the demands of the task may be impossible for this child given his-her current developmental stage. Yet, the latter child might, in fact, learn the same material if it is presented in a different way or at a different time. This suggests that any single learning environment, be it a team teaching approach or a nongraded classroom, cannot provide equal learning stimulus for all children.

How a child learns can be referred to as the child's learning style. For example, many children learn easily through group discussion while others are better served by carefully listening to the teacher (Dunn & Dunn, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Hunt, 1971). This is not to say that a child can learn only by one approach. Rather, it suggests that a child has a general way of learning, which, at a particular stage in the child's development, is more appropriate than others. It is important to distinguish between learning style and ability. As Hunt (1972) purports, "learning style describes how a student learns, not how much or how well he has learned" (p. 8).

The following approaches of Fantini (1973c), Bussis and Chittenden (1970), and Hunt (1972) build upon each other and provide a useful understanding of the dynamics of, and relationship between, learning and teaching styles.

Fantini (1973c) characterizes a child's basic method of learning as either largely inductive or deductive. The deductive method has been the general, conventional educational approach. Knowledge in the various academic disciplines is covered in a systematic fashion. The child studies the material presented by the teacher in order to master it. In a deductive manner, a child typically begins with a given generalization such as "what goes up must come down." This generalization is then studied in specific by testing several objects.

The inductive method involves problem solving through active, hands-on activities. In this approach, the child begins with the specifics and attempts to develop the generalization. In this inductive approach, a child would throw many objects into the air, experiment, and eventually conclude that "what goes up must come down." This inductive method encourages the child to discover the generalization rather than merely accept it as a given, as in the deductive method. Although the inductive and deductive methods of learning are different in design, both methods are valid ways of learning and are one way of describing teaching-learning styles (Fantini, 1973c).

Dunn and Dunn (1974) have considered the effect that environmental variables have on learning style. For example, sound level may have an influence on children's ability to learn. Some children can successfully filter surrounding sounds and learn regardless of those sounds. Other children can filter only selected sounds. Still another group is unable to filter the vast majority of sounds and therefore requires relatively silent environments in which to learn.

The physical environment may also have its impact on a child's learning style. Some children may need a formal room arrangement design much like a library where there would be few distractions and minimal movement throughout the room. Others may thrive in an informal atmosphere where movement is encouraged and where children might be learning while lying on the floor as others walk by. Certainly many other children prefer an environment somewhere between these two extremes (Dunn & Dunn, 1974; Hunt, 1971).

Although many children share learning styles, their general learning styles vary. Since these learning styles do vary, no single educational environment can facilitate optimally the learning of all children. That is, it may be extremely difficult for any single teacher to provide for the wide range of learning styles in a classroom where a variety of styles are represented (Barr, 1974;

Dunn & Dunn, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Guro, 1971; Paskal & Miller, 1975; Smith et al., 1974).

A teacher's style can be defined as the dominant theme of that teacher's method of teaching (Mosston, 1972). "It should be suited to his or her personality, special talents, and skills" (Mosston, 1972, p. 1 foreword). As in the case of children's learning styles, Fantini (1973c) believes that teaching styles can be described as being predominantly inductive or deductive. The deductive style is also referred to as being predominantly teacher-directed or subject-matter centered while inductive style is also referred to as child-centered or open. In this approach, it is helpful to view characteristics of teaching styles in the form of a continuum, ranging from deductive to inductive extremes. Figure 1 illustrates the characteristics of these two extremes and implies the existence of a multitude of styles falling somewhere between the two. Figure 1 can also be examined in terms of decision making. In the inductive style, the children are involved in classroom decisions regarding curriculum, scheduling, rules, physical design of the classroom, and evaluation, among others. The number of children contributing to these types of decisions is minimal in the deductive context. Since "teaching behavior is a chain of decision making," (Mosston, 1972, p. 10), the method by which the decisions are made can indicate a teaching style along the continuum from deductive to inductive. Just as many children have similar learning styles, many teachers have similar teaching styles (Dunn & Dunn, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Mosston, 1972; Paskal & Miller, 1975; Thelen, 1968).

The Deductive-Inductive Continuum provides an introductory investigation of teaching styles. However, this one dimensional continuum focuses solely on the teacher and only through inference does it expand to include the role of the children. Likewise, the continuum does not describe the basic educational goals of the teachers whose styles are situated along the continuum. Additional strategies are needed to examine the role of the children and the fundamental aims of the learning environments.

Bussis and Chittenden (1970) have developed a double classification scheme which examines the extent to which the teacher and students make decisions regarding the scope and method of learning in a classroom environment. This scheme is illustrated in Figure 2 and provides a useful strategy to identify and classify both teaching and learning styles.

DEDUCTIVE	INDUCTIVE
Formal environment and human interaction	Informal environment and human interaction
Activity time scheduled by teacher	Activity duration is child controlled
Teacher structures curriculum	Teacher structures process
Teacher provides the sources of learning	Teacher provides guidance facilitates learning
Furniture type and arrangement follow a standard pattern	Furniture type and arrangement based on child's patterns
Whole class oriented activity predominates	Individual and small group activity predominates
Teacher dominant, child subordinate	Teacher-pupil interaction individualistic
Curriculum is planned to cover teacher's lesson plan	Curriculum planned to meet children's interest
Dominance of textbook	Emphasis on manipulatives
Teacher controls, is disciplinarian	Teacher non-authoritarian acts as facilitator
Dichotomized work and play	No difference between work and play
Learning by being taught	Learning by discovery
Grouping for a single age	Grouping for several ages
Teacher decides who does what and when	Teacher and children determine pattern for day
Child's education is teacher's responsibility	Child's education is child's responsibility
Emphasis on intellectual development only	Emphasis on affective emotional as well as cognitive intellectual skills
Evaluation as diagnosis	Evaluation as classification

Figure 1. Deductive – Inductive Continuum (Fantini, 1973c, p. 70-71)

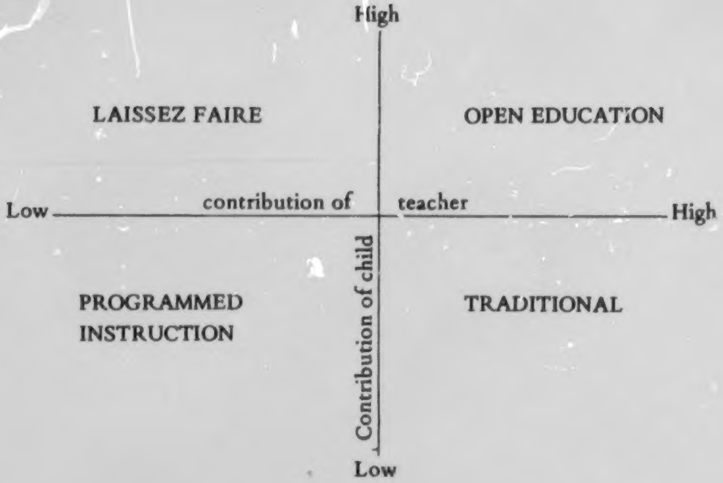

Figure 2. Double Classification Scheme Based on Extent to which (1) the Individual Teacher and (2) the Individual Child is an Active Contributor to Decisions Regarding the Content and Process of Learning. (Bussis & Chittenden, 1970, p. 23)

The upper right quadrant of Figure 2 denotes a high contribution to decision-making by both the child (student) and the teacher. The classroom environment in this quadrant follows an open philosophy of education, characterized by an inductive approach. The upper left quadrant, labeled laissez faire, represents a completely nondirective role for the classroom teacher while the children, with substantial decision-making power, have "great freedom which occasionally erupts into chaos" (p. 22). In the lower right quadrant, the teacher makes most of the decisions which affect the classroom environment. The children's contribution to decision-making is minimal. Bussis and Chittenden characterize this as a traditional mode in both British and American schools. A teacher characterized by the lower left quadrant, labeled programmed instruction, is a "passive conveyor of decisions made elsewhere; and unlike the upper left, the children have very little freedom or chance to express themselves" (p. 24). Decisions regarding curriculum, rules, scheduling, evaluation, etc., are made by others including school specialists, principals, and educational publishing companies, among others. Teachers in this quadrant teach "by the book" and raise few questions as to this style's degree of appropriateness for the teacher as well as the students.

Bussis and Chittenden's (1970) double classification scheme serves at least two important functions: (1) basic teaching and learning styles can be identified and classified according to the extent of teacher-student involvement in decisions affecting the classroom environment, and (2) the differences in teaching and learning styles can be more clearly distinguished and delineated. However, fundamental educational aims are not discussed in the Bussis and Chittenden scheme. Therefore, it is useful to examine Hunt's (1972) research for it provides an understanding of this missing factor.

Hunt, Piaget, Kohlberg, and other developmentalists, assert that children proceed developmentally through a series of stages. Hunt states that learning environments should reflect this development and have as their ultimate aim, increasing a child's independence. Hunt (1972) suggests, "to be helpful to teachers, a developmental theory should specify the educational needs of students at different levels of development, and should distinguish between the student's immediate needs (contemporaneous) and his long-term requirements for growth (developmental)" (p. 1). Figure 3 illustrates the developmental aims.

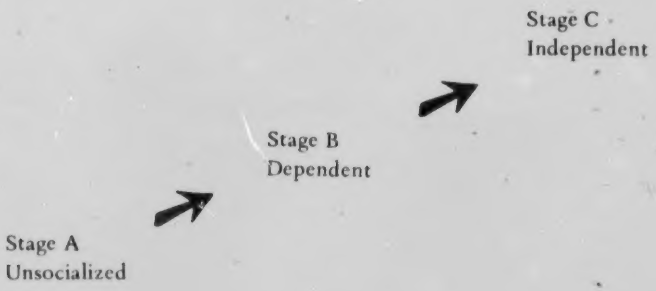

Figure 3. Hunt's (1972) Developmental Stages

As represented in Figure 3, the progression of stages "proceeds from an immature, unsocialized stage (A), to a dependent, conforming stage (B), to an independent, self-reliant stage (C)" (Hunt, 1972, p. 2). A child continues developmentally through the stages, experiencing "increasing interpersonal maturity and increasing understanding of oneself and others" (p. 2). All teachers must strive toward these fundamental goals for children, i.e., encouraging independence and increasing intra-interpersonal maturity. These aims must be considered by all educators, regardless of where their teaching style is situated along the Deductive-Inductive Continuum of Fantini, or within the Bussis and Chittenden Double Classification Scheme.

Through an understanding of both the Continuum and the Double Classification Scheme, and with recognition of the basic aims suggested by Hunt, teaching and learning styles are more clearly defined.

The styles of both learners and teachers are supported by a plethora of past experience. Therefore, to force a child to "wear" a learning style not representative of that past, or a teacher to practice a style of another, may be an endeavor doomed to failure. This can occur when, for example, it is mandated that a school become an open, nongraded institution. Such a change may be a positive experience for many children and many teachers as their learning and teaching styles are compatible with this approach. A potentially compatible match can occur when a group of children with inductive learning styles are taught by a teacher implementing inductive teaching methods. However, there will likely be many children and teachers whose learning and teaching styles are at odds with this approach. Incompatibility is risked when inductive learners are matched with deductive teachers and visa versa. Thus, to mandate a change in an entire school can create major problems (Barr, 1974; Barth, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Gross, Giacquinta & Berstein, 1968; Guro, 1971; Hutchins, 1974; Paskal & Miller, 1973; Smith et al., 1974). This does not preclude the possible shifting of a person's perspective at a future point. Yet, the issue is one of tailoring educational programs to meet the needs of people rather than modeling people to meet the needs of a program.

Earlier, it was stated that children have different learning styles and that teachers have various teaching styles. The persisting question asks: what is a way to provide for these differences within a single public school? In a district where there is only one school or where commuting to another school is not considered desirable, how can a single school make optimum use of its resources to provide for the varying needs of the children, teachers and the community?

One answer has been the establishment of public schools which have alternatives within the school itself. Such schools with multiple alternatives are being introduced in districts in many states including Massachusetts, California and New York (Paskal & Miller, 1975; Postman, 1974). These unique institutions, often referred to as Schools Within Schools (SWS), offer choices to children, teachers and community while the alternatives coexist in a symbiotic relationship. For example, in Northville, Michigan, there is an elementary school which offers three alternatives: (1) a conventional elementary program, (2) an open classroom program, and (3) an extended school year program (9 weeks school and 3 vacation weeks alternating throughout the calendar year). With community support, these public schools

> offer a group of teachers in a particular school an opportunity to develop a program that makes good educational sense to them, uses their professional and personal strengths, and centers on the needs and styles of a group of children or young people. (Paskal & Miller, 1975, p. 14)

It must be affirmed that there are limits to the degree to which a public school can attempt to meet the needs of its community. For example, to be legitimized as a public institution, a school cannot seek to separate ethnic groups for instruction. Such forced segregation is anathema to the educational rights of American citizens. Nor can a public school program model the laissez faire quadrant of the Bussis and Chittenden (1970) double classification scheme. Our public schools have an obligation and responsibility to maintain important standards which include "transmitting knowledge, skills, and social and moral rules of the culture" (Kohlberg, & Mayer, 1972, p. 453). Any educational program within our public schools must support particular standards and principles in its operation. A public school with coexisting alternative programs, while respecting teaching and learning styles, must simultaneously respect its responsibility as a public institution with a diverse base of clientele.

Responding to criticism, our educational public school system has developed technological and organizational innovations. Yet, these innovations have, for the most part, neglected a vitally important factor. The concept that children have different learning styles and teachers have different teaching styles has neither been considered nor incorporated in the planning of many educational innovations. Choice for teachers, children and community must be considered fundamental if our schools strive to respond effectively to differences among people. Dr. David Purpel supports the concept of choice with the following justification:

> This theme — the need to provide valid alternatives for families of varying life styles and values — pervades. I can think of nothing more hopeful and healthy (sic) for a nation committed to individualism, pluralism, and opportunity than to have a variety of educational institutions flourish. These concepts of choice, variety and alternatives are not only psychologically valid, since they recognize the enormous importance of individual differences among children; they also correspond to our political, cultural, and ethnic traditions. (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. vi)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is three fold:

(1) To explore the research and literature on innovations in public education, focusing on schools with coexisting alternative programs within a single school.

(2) To identify and describe characteristics useful for the establishment and growth of alternative public schools with coexisting alternative programs. The following questions will be addressed:

> What kind of theoretical framework and objectives should optional alternatives possess?
> What is the optimal size of an optional alternative program?
> Who should be involved in decisions relating to the implementation and perpetuation of the optional alternative?

How should teacher and student participation in the optional alternative be determined?
What are the implications of student race, religion, sex, and ethnic background in the design of optional alternatives?
How should the various programs within the school be perceived, in terms of relative value, by faculty, administration, children and community?
How should an optional alternative's developmental and operational cost factors compare to that of the conventional program?
How should student placement decisions be determined?
What should be the nature of a support structure in a school with coexisting alternative programs?
What kind of evaluation should be implemented in an optional alternative?

(3) To investigate the evolution of Parmenter School, Arlington, Massachusetts as an alternative public school having coexisting alternative programs, and relate this evolution to the list of characteristics.

Design of Study

Chapter I presents an introduction to the study through an investigation of a significant question in education today: how can a monolithic educational system actively respect the diverse, pluralistic quality of the society it serves?

Chapter II provides a review of the professional literature on alternative public schools, focusing on alternative public schools with coexisting alternative programs within a single school. This discourse is presented within an overall framework of change and innovation in public school education.

Chapter III includes the identification and description of the elements characteristic of a public school with coexisting alternative programs. Support from the professional literature is delineated for each element. These elements are presented as basic objectives which provide useful direction and focus, though they may never be fully achieved.

Chapter IV examines Parmenter Elementary School, an alternative public school with coexisting alternative programs. The growth of this school is filtered through the identified list of elements providing a documentation of the extent to which this school acted consistently with these characteristics.

Chapter V includes conclusions, implications and recommendations specific to Parmenter Elementary School and generalized to the discipline of education.

Significance of the Study

This study has significance in that it contributes to and refines existing knowledge on (1) innovation in public schools and (2) alternative public schools with coexisting alternative programs within a single school. To date there is abundant research and literature on innovations in education. *Innovation in Education* (Miles, 1964), *Change and Innovation in Elementary School Organization* (Hillson, 1966), and *The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change* (Sarason, 1971) are just a few of the important volumes. Yet, little has been documented on alternative public schools with coexisting alternative programs (Hansen, 1973; Smith, 1976). Fantini (1973c), Guro (1971), Hansen (1973), Paskal and Miller (1975), and Smith et al. (1974) make it clear that there is need for alternatives within our public school system. Dunn and Dunn (1974) suggest that to continue without such alternatives is to neglect the needs of children, teachers, and the community. Since there is support for this direction in public school innovation literature, and growing interest in it within this country, it is of importance to extend and clarify the existing knowledge (Barr, 1974; Dunn & Dunn, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Gross et al., 1968; Guro, 1971; Hutchins, 1974; Paskal & Miller, 1973; Smith et al., 1974; Thelen, 1968).

This study investigates a manner by which student and teacher differences can be actively respected within a single school and meet the developmental needs of children. Alternative public schools are becoming increasingly fashionable yet few alternatives provide for these important differences of learning style and teaching style in the same school. The concept of coexisting alternative programs within a single school can serve various educational community needs and merits the closer attention of educators.

This study provides a compendium of strategies for educators wishing to develop a school with coexisting alternative programs. Since this type of innovation is becoming more widely utilized (Barr, 1974), it is valuable to provide specific strategies which will support and guide efforts to implement this innovation. Time, funds and other resources can be efficiently utilized if educators proceed in a productive and deliberate manner based on documented research strategies.

Methodology

Parmenter Elementary School, in Arlington, Massachusetts, was selected as the School Within a School (SWS) to filter the elements identified in Chapter III of this study. This selection had two justifications: (1) it is one of the older SWS alternatives, having been established in 1969, and (2) this researcher was a teacher at Parmenter from 1970 to 1974. This second rationale is considered a significant advantage in that many members of school faculty, administration, and parent community have shared positive relationships with this researcher. Typically, an investigator must spend considerable time attempting to build relationships which render fluid communication. Rather than being somewhat novel and distant, the unique culture of Parmenter School is very much an integral part of this researcher's professional life. With high level communication and relationships already established, with four years' teaching experience in the school, and with the warm invitation of school personnel, it was most appropriate that Parmenter School be selected for this study.

The intent of the conceptually-based research at Parmenter School was two-fold: (1) to gain a general understanding of the past and present functioning of the school, and (2) to specifically relate Parmenter's operation to the 10 elements identified in Chapter III.

Richardson, Dohrenwend, and Klein (1965) assert that there are three basic data-collecting methods: observation, perusal of documents, and interviewing. In suggesting a useful procedure for data collection, they report, "All three methods are often used in the same study, either concurrently or in sequence, to verify or to supplement the information gathered by any one of them or for the particular advantages of each at various stages" (p. 9). To address the stated objectives of this study, this researcher, consistent with the recommendations of Richardson et al., employed the three data-collecting methods.

Observations were made and recorded of the interpersonal relationships involving the school faculty, principal, visiting parents, and children. During these general observations, interpersonal behavior relating to the two aims of the Parmenter research were noted. For example, while in the Parmenter teacher's room, this researcher observed teachers from the two Parmenter programs sharing ideas and techniques. This observation was noted for it relates to the general notion of coexisting programs.

Relevant school documents were examined, including the original 1969 proposal for open classrooms and subsequent progress reports on the open classrooms.

Extensive interviewing was conducted, using the unstandardized interview technique. Kerlinger (1964) describes this technique as "more flexible and open" and "although the research purposes govern the questions asked, their content, their sequence, and their wording are entirely in the hands of the interviewer" (p. 469). This interview strategy allows the researcher to adjust the flow and direction of the dialogue during the course of the interview.

The researcher employed an "open" questioning technique during interviews. Benjamin (1969) asserts that "open" questions are essential in soliciting "views, opinions, thoughts, and feelings" (p. 64). An example of an "open" question is, "How did you feel when the principal was evaluating your lesson?" Since the desired data concerned feelings and attitudes, and were within an unstandardized interview framework, it was useful to ask "open" questions.

Throughout the interviews, this researcher asked clarifying types of "open" questions in an attempt to gain insight, yet, refrained from making value judgments which would have served to direct interviewee responses. In an effort to reduce other potentially influencing factors, individuals were interviewed singly.

Conversations were conducted at Parmenter School the week of April 26, 1976. Interviews were recorded with faculty, principal, school secretary, school psychologist, physical education teacher, art teacher, school librarian, many children and several parents. Most dialogues extended from 30 to 60 minutes, although one interview with the principal continued in excess of three hours.

At the onset of all interviews, it was articulated to the interviewee that this researcher was examinging Schools Within Schools and was at Parmenter to gather relevant information. Following, the interviewee was asked how he-she would feel if the dialogue were to be taped. Although the intention was to tape all interviews in order to obtain a more detailed record from which to analyze Parmenter's development and operation, most individuals expressed the feeling that they would be more comfortable without the use of the tape recorder. Yet, no one verbalized objection to simple note taking. Thus, taped interviews were limited to discussions with the school principal, psychologist, and two teachers, all of whom did not articulate discomfort with the taping procedure. Notes were taken at all interviews.

From the data gathered through observations, school documents, and interviews, this researcher distilled and analyzed specific data which related to the 10 elements identified in Chapter III. These analyzed data provides supporting evidence for assumptions and conclusions suggested in Chapter IV of this study.

This researcher employed various data-gathering strategies, including observation, perusal of documents, and interviewing; used an unstandardized interview format and asked "open" questions; avoided the articulation of value judgments; conducted discussions with a single individual at a time; and dialogued with a variety of the Parmenter School population, in an effort to increase the probability of gaining a comprehensive understanding of the school.

Limitations

Several limitations are evidenced in the general approach utilized.

(1) As discussed in this chapter, this researcher was a teacher at Parmenter School. Such association with the school and one program (the open program) could serve to influence interviewee responses.

(2) This researcher assumed the role of data collector. In terms of observations and interviews, the researcher's affiliation with Parmenter creates the possibility of researcher bias.

(3) Data collecting was limited to the week of April 26, 1976, thereby making it difficult to verify some data, such as long-term teacher goals. Thus, some conclusions are tentative.

(4) The unstandardized interview technique using "open" questions requires extensive analysis. This researcher, alone, interpreted the data, thereby formulating subjective interpretations.

(5) All the data accumulated did not relate to the 10 elements of Chapter III. Thus, substantial data were irrelevant to this study and had to be discarded. Acquiring these data and determining their degree of relevance consumed many hours and much energy.

Definition of Terms

This study focuses on alternative public schools which have coexisting alternative programs within a single school.

These schools are *public.*

1. They are supported by public funds and require no additional funding.
2. Public boards of education act as administrative bodies supporting the school.
3. The population in the area of the school provides the student enrollment for the school.

These schools have *alternatives.*

1. There is more than one educational program operating within the school.
2. The alternatives reflect different teaching and learning styles and manifest themselves in the reorganization of one or more of the following:
    a) Curriculum
    b) Physical environment
    c) Community relationships
    d) Student-teacher interaction
3. The commitment to the alternative program(s) is documented in writing.

The alternative programs are *coexisting.*

1. The programs have a symbiotic relationship, i.e., the programs "live" together although one is not necessary for the other's existence.

The intention of alternative programs is to compatibly match *learning style* and *teaching style.*

1. Learning style can be defined as how a child learns.
2. Teaching style can be defined as the dominant theme of a teacher's method of teaching.

Summary

Chapter I has provided an introduction to the topic of coexisting alternative programs within one school through an examination of the need to compatibly match teaching and learning styles and to encourage children's development toward independence and intra-interpersonal maturity. By enlisting such a matching process, the diverse characteristics of our society can be actively acknowledged in our public schools. A list of questions is identified in Chapter I and shall furnish general framework for Chapter II, focus for Chapter III, and filter for Chapter IV.

Chapter II of this study will present a review of the related literature on alternatives in our public schools with specific attention to schools with coexisting alternative programs. This Chapter is organized under the following topics:

(A) Innovation in Public Education
(B) The Change Agent
(C) Rationale for Educational Options in Public Schools
(D) The Growth of Educational Options in Public Schools
(E) Categories of Educational Options
(F) Support from Teacher Education Programs
(G) Problems of Educational Options
(H) Implications of Educational Options.

II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Innovation in Public Education

In order to investigate public schools with coexisting alternative programs, it is necessary to set such an exploration into a framework of change and innovation. It also is important to examine other types of alternative public schools, for only through such a comprehensive investigation can public schools with coexisting alternative programs be understood in totality. These serve as the aims of this chapter.

The notion of change has filled hundreds of volumes and has been a focus of man's search for a better world. Social scientists have invested innumerable hours in an attempt to document the process of change and thereby provide a model to be followed by those seeking a guiding hand or a "paint-by-numbers" approach to success. In virtually all professional fields, there are strategists who explore new patterns, ideas and processes directed toward change and the potential for change. One might conclude that with such considerable effort, in terms of cost and hours, the process of change would have been carefully and completely analyzed and documented. The abundant literature on innovation in education can certainly attest to the attempt at such documentation. Yet, innovation is a multifaceted, highly complex puzzle of immense proportions which can no more easily be described in a few simple steps than can the process of learning. Although the rhetoric is massive in quantity, the method for successfully and significantly changing our public school system is far from being a clean, precise, foolproof process (Gross et al., 1968; Sarason, 1971).

This is not to say that we have made no progress in our understanding of how change occurs in schools. There has accumulated a vast pool of knowledge from which we can draw certain conclusions and make particular assumptions. This pool of information is in a perpetual state of clarification through a refinement of what already exists as well as through new studies and investigations into change.

Within the literature on change, several commonalities are evident. Seemingly simplistic, yet with important implications, is the assumption that change is a complex process and one which often must be accomplished by substantial investment of time and energy (Bennis, Benne & Chin, 1969; Cass, 1973; Havelock, 1973; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; Sarason, 1971). According to Cass (1973), a major contributing factor to this complexity is "the natural human reluctance to change — a reluctance that we all share in some degree" (p. 452). Individuals and organizations are generally hesitant to change and prefer to maintain the status quo. In some instances, individuals recoil from change, seeking to retain the security and control they possess. Sarason (1971) suggests "...that man's desire to change is more than matched by his ingenuity in avoiding change, even when the desire to change is powered by strong pain, anxiety and grief" (p. 121). Thus, those desirous of changing our public schools are not only often faced with the participants' reluctance to change, but their avoidance behavior in addition.

As a result of this complex nature of innovation in our public schools, educators still do not have sufficient information on how change occurs. Sarason (1971) states, "the fact is that we simply do not have adequate descriptive data on the ways in which change is conceived, formulated and executed within a school system" (p. 20). Goodlad (1975) comments, "we have assumed that we know what goes on in schools and how they function but we know surprisingly little" (p. 25). Our apparent "ignorance" regarding the change process in schools is further criticized by Gross, et al. (1968) who suggest that there is insufficient research in change theory with respect to the school system. Nevertheless, within the literature there are descriptions of change specific to the school setting.

Goodlad (1975) claims that there are three basic approaches to change in schools:

(1) Relevance, or educational responsiveness to human needs and problems,

(2) Efficiency, or fiscal responsibility,

(3) Equality, or equal opportunity to gain access to societal resources and to participate in societal decision-making. (p. 30)

Based on their value orientations, advocates of change can be positioned under one of these categories.

Joyce (1969) postulates that major changes in school systems respond to these important questions:

(1) How will the school serve the individual and his society?

(2) How will the dimensions of the environment be shaped to carry out the mission of the school?

(3) How will children and instructional materials be brought together? (pp. 4-5)

In examining the school as a unique organization, Bidwell (1965) suggests three assumptions which must be considered when exploring the possibility of change within a school:

(1) Schools are client serving organizations,

(2) The role structure of a school system contains a fundamental dichotomy between student and staff roles,

(3) School systems are bureaucratic to some degree. (p.273-4)

Goodlad (1975), Joyce (1969), and Bidwell (1965) suggest particular assumptions and questions which provide foundation for change in our schools. Yet, Hall, Loucks, Rutherford, and Newlove (1975) claim that an innovation does not equally affect its "users" (those who must accommodate to the change) even when the innovation adheres to these documented assumptions. Rather, Hall, et al. (1975) state that change is a developmental process in terms of how "users" accommodate to it. To illustrate this process, Hall, et al. (1975) have developed a Levels of Use (LoU) developmental growth continuum which "describes various behaviors of the innovation user through various stages — from orienting, to managing, and finally to integrating use of the innovation" (p. 53). This can provide a useful measure of the degree to which an innovation has been adopted by those affected by it.

In expanding on the notion of change within a school, Sarason (1971) addresses the concept of existing regularities. These are the historically defended, uniform premises of public school education and include elements such as the following: the five day per week, 180 day per year calendar; the personnel hierarchy within the school system; six, 45 minute periods per school day with five or six independent subjects for study; one teacher per twenty-five or thirty children; the occurence of virtually all a child's education within the walls of the school building; and the principal's role as the major administrator and disciplinarian within the school building. Sarason contends that any innovation introduced in a school will change, eliminate, or create a regularity. In addition, Sarason (1971) suggests that "the attempt to introduce a change into the school setting usually (if not always) stems from the perception of a regularity that one does not like" (p. 66).

In examining regularities within the school, Sarason (1971) asserts that they are designed to have specific effects which can be referred to as intended outcomes. These intended outcomes have two primary characteristics:

(1) Aspects of them are discernible in overt behavior or interactions,

(2) They are justified by statements of value (i.e., what is good and what is bad) (Sarason, 1971, p. 86).

Unfortunately, there often exists a discrepancy between intended outcomes and the actual outcomes. Educators may simply assume that the intended outcomes are, in reality, the actual outcomes. Sarason (1971) emphasizes that "no regularity is built into the school culture to facilitate the recognition of such discrepancies" (p. 86). Those involved in the school rarely explore the outcomes of a regularity to see if they are consistent with the intended outcomes.

It can be argued that when those affected by an innovation within a school are significantly involved in decisions relating to the planning and implementation of the innovation, discrepancies between intended and actual outcomes may be more easily perceived. Those closest to the innovation, including teachers, administrators and children, may be most aware of diverging outcomes. This suggests that decision-making power rests with more than a single individual.

Summary

It becomes clear from Bidwell (1965), Goodlad (1975), Hall (1975), Joyce (1969), and Sarason (1971) that although change in our schools is highly complex, there are particular assumptions and approaches which support and facilitate change. These approaches, often developmental in nature, concern the interrelationships among school personnel, students and the community. A major strategy suggests that change in public schools can be greatly facilitated through the guidance, encouragement, and skill of a promoter of change, or change agent.

B. The Change Agent

A change agent is a strategic force, acting to facilitate an innovation. Bennis, et al. (1969) claim that such a change force is extremely difficult to define and describe yet, in a highly practical guide to change in education, Havelock (1973) describes a change agent as "a person who facilitates planned change or planned innovation" (p. 5). In addition, Havelock identifies four fundamental methods of a change agent. The change agent can be (1) a catalyst, (2) a solution giver, (3) a process helper and (4) a resource linker (p. 5).

The change agent as a catalyst initiates the change process. By applying carefully placed pressure and voicing dissatisfaction with the status quo, "they energize the problem-solving process; they get things started" (Havelock, 1973, p. 8).

The solution giver knows the solution to the problem which requires change, yet the role of this type of change agent is more involved than simply documenting the proposed strategy. The solution giver must also know the method by which to introduce the change and the specific time to present it. Furthermore, this agent must be able to design the implementation strategy.

The process helper is highly knowledgeable of how change occurs in individuals and organizations. Such a change agent helps identify and clarify needs, objectives, and resources, as well as being competent with evaluation instruments.

As a resource linker, the change agent helps to identify important resources which can facilitate change in a particular setting. These resources often include "financial backing, knowledge of solutions, knowledge and skills in diagnosing problems, formulating and adopting solutions, and expertise on the process of change itself" (Havelock, 1973, p. 9). Although this role of the change agent is often minimized, Havelock considers the resource linker as an extremely valuable contributor to successful change.

Although described independently above, these four primary roles of a change agent are interrelated. In fact, the effective change agent may simultaneously be a catalyst, solution giver, process helper and resource linker.

Bennis, et al. (1969) suggest that the role of the change agent is not necessarily that of the high-status, organizational expert. Rather, the role is somewhat ambiguous and insecure. The mission of the change agent is rarely defined and projects a spectrum of meanings. As a result of this ambiguity, the role often draws suspicion and enmity. Likewise, there are two other factors which can be the source of insecurity. Firstly, there is a lack of specific guidelines from which to support particular actions. Secondly, the change agent may be the first one replaced should the proposed change not proceed smoothly.

In describing the characteristics of the change agent, Bennis, et al. (1969) advocate competence in a variety of spheres, including:

(1) Conceptual diagnostic knowledge cutting across the entire sector of the behavioral sciences,

(2) Theories and methods or organizational change,

(3) Knowledge of sources of help,

(4) Orientation to the ethical and evaluative functions of the change agent's role,

(5) Operational and relational skills: of listening, observing, identifying, and reporting, of ability to form relationships and trust, of a high degree of behavioral flexibility,

(6) To use himself, to be in constant communication with himself and to recognize and come to terms with...his own motivations,

(7) To act congruently (authentically) in accordance with the values (meta-goals) he is attempting to superimpose upon the target system's value system (p. 346).

Bennis, et al. (1969) assert that the role of a change agent can be a most effective one when the agent is highly competent and able to endure a sense of insecurity and ambiguity, as well as suspicion by others.

According to Sarason (1971), it is imperative that a change agent in a school have a comprehensive understanding of the culture of the school. For example, one aspect of the culture is the reality of teachers spending their day with children and with minimal contact with other adults. As Sarason states, "one of these consequences is that teachers are psychologically alone even though they are in a densely populated setting" (1971, p. 106). The loneliness of the profession, as an example of the culture of the school, must be taken into account when planning an educational innovation. Failure to do so promotes the risk of creating barriers to change which can eventually lead to an unsuccessful attempt at innovation.

Sarason (1971) suggests that the change agent be highly cognizant of four fundamental characteristics of the change process within the school.

[*1*] *The process must "be appropriate to, and mirror the complexities of, social settings"* (p. 58). A change agent must have more than a simple awareness of the particular school setting considering change. The agent must explore all "the relevant dimensions and relationships" (p. 59) in order to plan appropriate strategies.

[*2*] *The process must address any and all factions or barriers opposing the particular innovation and work to eliminate them.* Lewin (1951) refers to these barriers as restraining forces. These forces inhibit change and are countered by driving forces which facilitate change. Lewin (1951) asserts that through an identification and understanding of both restraining and driving forces, change agents can shift the balance between these forces and thereby encourage change. Sarason (1971) claims that not to recognize these restraining forces generally precludes successful change.

> The chances of achieving intended outcomes become near zero when the sources of opposition are not faced, if only because it is tantamount to denial or avoidance of the reality of existing social forces and relationships in the particular setting (Sarason, 1971, p. 59).

[*3*] *The process of change embodies "a series of decisions that increasingly involve or affect more and more groups in that setting"* (p. 59). *The choosing of such a decision-maker can have significant implications.* Mandating change or "coerced change" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1972, p. 160) can result in rapid, yet superficial changes in the school. Although an alternative is representation decision-making, Sarason (1971) justifiably asks how those representatives should be selected. Furthermore, "is it self-evidently desirable that decision-making groups should always be representative" (Sarason, 1971, p. 59)? Whether mandated,

representative or democratic (all those affected by the change have a vote), the question of who should make the decisions required by an educational innovation is a vital consideration and one which must be addressed by change agents in schools (Barth, 1974; Bennis et al., 1969). Yet, Sarason (1971) asserts that the complex nature of innovation in our schools is often not comprehended by change agents. Teachers, administrators, parents, and students may be more aware of this complexity than a single change agent. This suggests that change agents, in order to better understand the culture of the school and thereby examine an array of alternatives to existing regularities, should involve those affected by the change in decisions regarding planning and implementation. This is not to assert that all decisions must be made democratically. Yet, it does suggest the advisability of consideration for a shared decision-making approach to change in our public schools.

[*4*] *The process of change must include a time perspective which describes "when something should be done and when certain outcomes are to be expected"* (p. 60). Sarason (1971) concludes that there is universally a massive underestimation of the time required for change within a school. The ramifications of such an underestimation can be serious and can include animosity and discouragement on the part of the participants. Those involved in change must set a realistic time perspective or otherwise risk creating new problems. Finally, the time perspective of the change agent must be consistent with the perspective of teachers, administrators, parents and community.

Summary

Faced with attitudes of reluctance to change (Cass, 1973; Sarason, 1971), as well as the ambiguity and insecurity often inherent in the position (Bennis, et al., 1969), the change agent must, nevertheless, provide stimulus, strength, and guidance. In order to facilitate change, the agent must have a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics of innovation (Bennis, et al., 1969; Cass, 1973; Havelock, 1973; Sarason, 1971), the skill to define and clarify needs and objectives (Bennis, et al., 1969; Havelock, 1973), the ability to evaluate growth (Bennis, et al., 1969; Havelock, 1973; Sarason, 1971), the knowledge of helpful resources (Bennis, et al., 1969; Havelock, 1973; Sarason, 1971), the vision to perceive potential barriers and risks (Lewin, 1951; Sarason, 1971), and have both knowledge of, and respect for, the unique culture of the school (Fantini, 1973c; Sarason, 1971). Although often in a thankless role, the change agent remains an invaluable cogwheel in the machinery of public school innovation.

C. Rationale for Educational Options in Public Schools

Innovation in education is an important, worthwhile endeavor. Hillson (1967) stresses that "In any vital organization such as the schools, change and modification are constantly needed to meet the demands of a dynamic society" (p. 1). Specific assumption and strategies have been thoroughly detailed in the literature (Cass, 1973; Bennis, et al., 1966; Goodlad, 1975; Gross, et al., 1968; Havelock, 1973; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; Sarason, 1973). Many of these strategies have been utilized by educators to design and implement innovations in the schools' curriculum, physical environment, community relations, and student-teacher interaction. This effort at change has included the implementation of alternatives within the public school system.

Fantini (1973c) suggests that although most Americans are satisfied with their public schools, there is a significant minority who are not satisfied. In a 1972 Gallup Poll, 60 percent of those polled expressed satisfaction with the public schools. In addition to 12 percent who had no opinion, an alarming 28 percent expressed dissatisfaction with the public schools (Fantini, 1973c). In a 1975 Gallup Poll making use of the traditional school scale of "A" through "F", although 43 percent rated the schools with an "A" or "B", 28 percent rated the schools at a "C" level, 9 percent at a "D" and 7 percent failed the public schools (13 percent didn't know) (Gallup, 1975). The 1976 Gallup Poll results were similar to those of 1975: 42 percent rated the schools with an "A" or "B", 28 percent at a "C", 10 percent at "D" and 6 percent failed the schools (14 percent didn't know) (Gallup, 1976). If we cannot attempt to satisfy this large dissatisfied minority, "they will inevitably disturb the climate in the schools for everyone" (Fantini, 1973c, p. 9).

In an effort to address the needs of the dissatisfied and others as well, educational innovators have created change within many school systems. As discussed in Chapter I of this study, there is a fundamental problem inherent in this change. This problem is clearly identified by Smith, et al. (1974).

> Many of the attempts to reform education in the last two decades were socially unacceptable because they sought to provide a reformed school for everyone. They required consensus. Even though many parents would like to see changes in the schools, they certainly would not all agree on exactly what those changes should be. (p. 15)

In effect, we may be shifting the seeds of discontent from one group to another. There is substantial support in the literature to indicate that mandating that all children accept one particular educational environment is self-defeating to the notion of a quality education (Barr, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Guro, 1971; Hunt, 1974; Hutchins, 1974; Joyce & Weil, 1972; Paskal & Miller, 1973; Smith, et al., 1974). Thus, with or without an innovation, there exists a large group of dissatisfied citizens.

The options for these dissatisfied are few. Private schools are available yet for many, private education is a financial impossibility. Therefore, there are few choices. In fact, "for nearly 90 percent of the families in this country, there are no choices in elementary and secondary education" (Smith, et al., 1974, p. 5).

One answer to this problem has been the creation of optional, alternative public schools also referred to as public schools of choice. Many educators strongly support this direction. This innovation allows for choice for students, teachers and parents in terms of educational environments. Barr (1974) asserts that "A pluralistic culture would seem to demand a pluralistic structure for education" (p. 242). Smith (1973c) adds that "diversity in education is a quality of unspeakable importance" (p. 434). Kammann (1972) hypothetically analogizes a town "where every family is assigned arbitrarily to one local doctor by a ruling of the board of health" (p. 37). In asking the reader to imagine such a town, Kammann describes assigning a particular doctor "only on the basis of the shortest distance from the house to the doctor's office" (1972, p. 37). Summarizing the need for alternatives within the public school, Kammann (1972) affirms that "a choice among truly different educational approaches would satisfy the diverse requirements and values of our society in a way not possible right now" (p. 37).

The national government has added support to the notion of optional alternatives in the public school system. In 1970, the White House Conference on Children recommended "immediate, massive funding for the development of alternative optional forms of public education" (p. 423). In addition, The President's Commission on School Finance urged that "options be provided to parents and students" (1972, p. 76). The National Institute of Education has promoted options in public schools through its Experimental Schools Program. State governments in Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Illinois, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania and Washington have assisted the development of options and are encouraging the implementation of alternative public schools (Smith, 1973b). Advocates of options insist that not to provide such alternatives is "authoritarian, undemocratic and un-American" (Barr, Smith & Burke, 1972, p. 35).

Summary

Fantini (1973c) reports that more than one out of every four Americans is distressed with the public schools. Change has occurred, but the general mode has been change by fiat, an approach which continues to satisfy only a portion of the public. Barr (1974), Guro (1971), Hutchins (1974) and others indicate that mandating change can have greater negative results than no change at all. Since private schools often create financial burdens, there have been few options for the dissatisfied. Barr, et al. (1972), Fantini (1973c), Paskal and Miller (1973), Smith (1973a) and Smith, et al. (1974), insist that there can be viable alternatives through the creation of educational options in our public schools. Such options encourage the compatible matching of teaching and learning styles as discussed in Chapter I. The fundamental dynamic of these public schools is the concept of choice for both teacher and student. Rather than coercing acceptance of a particular learning environment, an optional program exists as an alternative for those desirous of it.

D. The Growth of Educational Options in Public Schools

Although its support is considerable and indeed growing annually, the concept of providing educational options within a community was relatively unknown a decade ago (Barr, 1974; Smith, et al., 1974). There were few alternatives for students prior to the 1960's. For those who desired non-academic programs, vocational education was a viable alternative. Although a student could also drop out of school and go to work, this ceased being a valued option in the 1950's when societal changes made this alternative less attractive. In the last two decades, programs have been implemented to work with drop-outs and potential drop-outs, yet, for the "average" student in a public school, there has been virtually no choice.

Prior to 1969, the notion of options within the public school domain was basically non-existent. As Barr (1974) states, "No one had written a book on the subject, there were no federal programs to catalyze support and even the large foundations and universities were unaware...." (p. 237).

Parkway School "was probably the first public school created to be an option for any student within its community" (Smith, 1973, p. 6). It was established in 1969 with 143 original high school students (Hutchins, 1974). The Program, within the public school system, was fully accredited and achieved wide recognition in the media. Chosen by lottery, the students, with guidance from their teachers, utilized their environment as their classrooms. Often referred to as "The School Without Walls", the Parkway Program, as of 1974, enrolled over 1,000 students and was continuing to expand (Hutchins, 1974).

The system of options in Berkeley, California also was implemented in 1969. Currently, there are 17 options for students ranging from preschool to senior high. One kindergarten through third grade program in Berkeley is the John Muir Primary School which houses three optional programs within one school building (Berkeley Experimental Schools Project, 1975c). The Early Learning Center, another of Berkeley's 17 options, involves children 3 to 8 years old "and is developed around the basic belief that children learn better if their parents are involved in the life of the school" (Berkeley Experimental Schools Project, (BESP), 1975a).

In the early 1970's, joining Berkeley and Philadelphia, "many communities were developing alternative public schools to complement conventional schools in order to make the school systems within their communities more responsive to the needs of all children and youth" (Smith, et al., 1974, p. 7). As the notion of public school alternatives continued to grow, more and more communities implemented options. Smith (1973b) reports that by 1973, over 1,000 communities in this country were planning or actually operating alternative public schools. Approximately 100,000 students were enrolled in programs such as Parkway, Berkeley's Community High and Chicago's School for Metropolitan Studies (METRO) (Smith, 1973b). Optional programs were also available in Ann Arbor and Grand Rapids, Michigan, Jefferson County, Colorado, St. Paul, Minnesota, Seattle, Washington and Madison, Wisconsin.

Several national reports also discussed the need for options. For example, the 1973 Report of the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education asserted that all communities should have a series of alternative schools which can provide choice for students within the community (Smith, et al., 1974).

Advocates of optional alternative schools articulated their thoughts and strategies and published them as well. Although prior to 1970 there was little published in the professional journals on options and alternative public schools, by 1973 Smith reported in the National Association of Secondary School Principals' (NASSP) Bulletin that "these two terms are so common and widespread that they are almost ubiquitous" (p. 7).

The rhetoric was abundant and powerful. Yet, the 1,000 communities involved in alternative programs by 1973 constitute a very small percentage of all the communities in the United States. It was predicted in March, 1973 in a Curriculum Report of NASSP that by 1976 there would be approximately 20,000 optional alternative schools operating in this country. There is little available evidence to support the growth potential as described in this Report.

Notwithstanding the unrealistic predictions of growth, the optional alternative school movement was, in fact, growing in popularity and acceptance. Yet, it must be noted that in 1975, over 70 percent of the alternative programs were located in just nine states. This distribution of alternative schools is illustrated in Figure 4.

California	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 29%
New York	XXXXXXXXXXX 11%
Washington	XXXXXXX 7%
Pennsylvania	XXXXXX 6%
Michigan	XXXX 4%
Massachusetts	XXXX 4%
Minnesota	XXXX 4%
New Jersey	XXX 3%
Illinois	XXX 3%
Others	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 29%

Figure 4. Distribution of Optional Alternative Public Schools by State
(Barr, 1975, p. 5)

The movement expanded in the early 1970's with the formation of the International Consortium for Options in Public Education (ICOPE). With executive offices at Indiana University in Bloomington, Indiana, ICOPE has sponsored several conferences and conventions and offers consultant services as well (Smith, et al., 1974). "The Consortium has been an essential factor in gaining support for educational alternatives from within public school systems" (Burke, 1973).

Summary

Optional alternative public schools, a nine-year-old movement, is still in its infancy. Over the last few years, the range of options available to students, teachers and parents has in many cases increased. In other cases, there have become clearer choices as a result of eliminating problems and sharper focus on goals and objectives. Certainly not all communities offering options generate

17 possibilities as in Berkeley, California, nor would it necessarily be appropriate in terms of the needs in the community. Yet, the notion that students, parents, and teachers should have a choice in the type of learning environment within their public schools is of prime importance (Barr, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Hutchins, 1974; Paskal & Miller, 1975). The philosophy of optional alternative public schools has, at its foundation, the concept of choice.

E. Categories of Educational Options

The types of options available vary from community to community with some basic types operating in all. The following is an identification and description of the most common options.

The Open Alternative

Patterned after the British infant school, this alternative encourages children to work at their own pace, and emphasizes informality and independence through an open-active approach to learning. There is considerable effort to individualize learning activities and have them "organized around interest centers within the classroom or building" (Barr, 1974; p. 238). In *Nation's Schools* of November, 1972, the St. Paul Open School is suggested as a successful open alternative (Barr, Smith, & Burke). Implemented in 1971, the St. Paul Open School has an enrollment of 500 students from kindergarten through grade 12 (Smith, et al., 1974). Interestingly, the school is operating out of a reconditioned warehouse.

Located in an inner-city business section of Louisville, Kentucky, the Brown Open School is also housed in a refurbished office building. The student body is approximately 50 percent Black and 50 percent White and thus "it functions as a voluntary integration model and provides unique opportunities for racial and ethnic studies" (Barr, 1974, p. 238).

The Learning Center Alternative

Also commonly identified as educational parks, this alternative provides "specialized, more sophisticated resources" (p. 50) focusing on particular subject areas such as the performing arts or urban studies among others (Paskal & Miller, 1973). Students can attend a learning center either full-time for a semester or two, or part-time. An example of this alternative is the Skyline Learning Center in Dallas, Texas, which offers a computer center experience for students. Other learning centers operate in St. Louis, Missouri, Minneapolis, Minnesota, Chicago, Illinois and in Grand Rapids, Michigan where there is emphasis on film making, anthropology and values clarification (Barr, 1974). For most students, the learning center alternative is not a full-time option. The majority of their education still evolves from a conventional school unlike the open alternative which offers a full-time commitment (Barr, 1974; Paskal & Miller, 1973; Smith, et al., 1974).

One example of a learning center which is a full-time involvement for many secondary students is the School of the Arts in Berkeley, California. The school "provides a broad range of arts training in music, dance, drama, and media, and performance experiences" (BESP, 1975d).

With 225 students in grades 10 through 12, this alternative also stresses cognitive development in English and History. This option operates as an elementary through high school alternative.

The Multi-Cultural Alternative

Serving a multi-cultural student enrollment, this optional alternative school emphasizes racial and ethnic awareness and exploration. Genesis-Agora High School, one of Berkeley's alternatives, has a student body of 171 students, grades 10 through 12. The "multicultural curriculum is aimed at creating and developing positive feelings about each student's own culture and about the cultures of others" (BESP, 1975b). Bilingual schools, offered as options in some communities, is another form of multi-cultural alternative. This alternative is an option in elementary through high school.

The Community Based Alternative

Also called "Schools Without Walls", this option utilizes the varied resources within the community as the foundation for instruction. Although there is often a home base of operation, the students' learning activities are concentrated within their community. Probably the most well known community based alternative is Philadelphia's Parkway Program. Other examples are Community High School in Ann Arbor, Michigan, City School in Madison, Wisconsin, and Chicago's Metro School. Students taking advantage of the abundant resources in their cities and towns, often have classes in newspaper offices, hospitals, town halls, court rooms, and television stations (Barr, 1974; Paskal & Miller, 1973). The curriculum, which varies from community to community, depends on available resources. Chicago's Metro School, for example, held a course at Chicago's Lincoln Park Zoo to study animal behavior. Another Metro course, entitled Halstead Street, had students "ranging up and down this Chicago street doing field research to determine the history, ethnic patterns, available social services, and a variety of other areas that concerned them" (Barr, 1974, p. 239). There is no indication from the literature that this alternative operates at any level other than high school.

The Continuation Alternative

This option has existed in various forms for many years. It makes "provision for students whose education has been (or might be) interrupted by providing drop-out centers, reentry programs, pregnancy-maternity centers, evening and adult high schools, and street academics" (Smith, et al., 1974, p. 10). Examples of continuation alternatives include: in Grand Rapids, Michigan, the Alternative Education Center; in St. Paul, Minnesota, the Career Study Center; and in Tacoma, Washington, the Community Laboratory (Paskal & Miller, 1973). By the scope of the schools themselves, the enrollment generally is limited to above elementary school age students.

The Multi-Aged Alternative

Central to the operation of this alternative is multi-aged grouping. Frequently referred to as multi-graded schools, several grades are combined within one classroom environment, reminiscent of the old one-room schoolhouse. The particular environment may emphasize open education or a community based or multi-cultural approach. The Brown School in Louisville, Kentucky, with students in grades 3 through 11, offers multi-aged grouping and is a popular option in the community (Paskal & Miller, 1973).

The School Within A School Alternative

> Under this organizational plan, one elementary or secondary school is transformed into multiple "schools"—that is, one school offering a uniform program for

> everyone is converted into two or more schools within the same building, each offering a different sort of educational format (Fantini, 1973c, p. 123).

Also referred to as the mini-school alternative, this category of alternative public school includes the satellite school which is located on a different site, yet maintains close administrative connections with the "mother" school (Smith, et al., 1974).

The School Within a School (SWS) alternative, one of the most frequently found options in public education, is nevertheless infrequently described in the professional literature. Hansen (1973) suggests that SWS personnel seek little if any publicity. Vernon Smith (1976), Director of Center for Options in Public Education, reports that there is little documented specifically on the conception, implementation and perpetuation of the SWS alternative. Paradoxically, although this alternative is one of the most popular options, "it is neither simple to organize, nor easy to effect" (Hansen, 1973, p. 8). To establish two or more coexisting options within one building can be a most difficult task. Questions concerning rules, authority, use of facilities, curriculum and evaluation are most complex when examined in terms of a multiple option environment.

In spite of the problems inherent in this alternative, the SWS option continues to grow in interest among educators. Hansen (1973) identifies an important reason for such growth.

> It is the most feasible of the options to establish and organize for minimally it requires only internal rearrangement of students, staff, facilities, materials and funding. And its chances for survival are greater for it is less dramatic than a separately housed option (p. 8).

Examples of the SWS alternative at the high school level include Quincy II High School in Quincy, Illinois, and John Adams High School in Portland, Oregon. "Each teacher and each student in these schools select which sub-school they wish to work in, learn in, owe allegiance to, and follow the rules of" (Paskal & Miller, 1975, p. 16). At the elementary school level, American School in Northville, Michigan, Parmenter School in Arlington, Massachusetts, and the Stadium School in Cranston, Rhode Island are examples of the SWS alternative. The types of choices offered in this alternative will vary and may include the open, multi-cultural, community based and-or the multi-aged options (Fantini, 1973c; Smith, et al., 1974).

Although optional alternative schools often vary in objectives and organization, most alternatives clearly fit into one of the seven described. The basic types of public school alternatives are the Open-Alternative, the Learning Center Alternative, the Multi-Cultural Alternative, the Community Based Alternative, the Continuation Alternative, the Multi-Aged Alternative, and the School Within a School Alternative (Barr, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Paskal & Miller, 1975; Smith, et al., 1974).

In 1973, ICOPE documented a percentage distribution of these various options.

Open Alternative	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 20%
Learning Center Alternative	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 18%
Community Based Alternative	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 22%
Continuation Alternative	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 21%
School Within A School Alternative	XXXXXXXXXX 10%
Others	XXXXXXXXX 9%

Figure 5. Comparisons of Type of Alternative Public School 1973 (Barr, 1975, P.8)

As illustrated in Figure 5, the community based alternative was the most common option with 22 percent of the 1,250 optional alternative schools identified by ICOPE. The continuation alternative followed with 21 percent and the open alternative with 20 percent. Others (9 percent) included the multi-cultural, multi-aged, and other alternatives.

A 1975 ICOPE distribution documentation, illustrated in Figure 6, indicates substantial change in the occurrence of particular options.

Open Alternative	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 15%
Learning Center Alternative	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 18%
Multi-Cultural Alternative	XXXX 4%
Community Based Alternative	XXXXXX 6%
Continuation Alternative	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 20%
School Within A School Alternative	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 17%
Others	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX 20%

Figure 6. Comparisons of Type of Alternative Public Schools 1975 (Barr, 1975, p. 9)

In the 18 month period between the two polls, the most significant drops in percentage occurred in the open alternative with a 5 percent drop and a 16 percent drop in the community based alternative. The most significant increase in percentage was in the SWS alternative which jumped 7 percent. Although Barr (1975) does not speculate on reasons behind this increase, it may be in part due to lack of finances to construct a new school building or renovate an old office building. Whatever the reason, Figure 6 indicates a significant increase in the number of SWS options in this country.

Summary

In addition to an identification and description of the most common types of educational alternatives, Section E has provided recent (1973 and 1975) percentage distributions of these alternatives. It is evident from a comparison of Figures 5 and 6 that the School Within a School alternative is growing rapidly and becoming an attractive option in many communities across the country. Such growth, coupled with the lack of documented information on the SWS (Hansen, 1973; Smith, 1976), suggests even a greater need for more investigations into the School Within a School.

F. Support from Teacher Education Programs

To staff optional alternative public schools, teacher education programs have been changing to assimilate this trend in education. Smith (1973a) maintains that teacher education in the United States is a monolithic giant similar to public education. As alternative public schools increased in number, it became apparent that there were not enough specifically trained and experienced teachers in optional alternatives. At a 1972 conference on alternative schools held in Racine, Wisconsin, educators "cited the need for teacher training programs that related to the staffing needs of alternative public schools" (Smith, et al., 1974, p. 33). In light of the fact that options in public schools are a relatively new innovation, this task of training teachers for positions in an evolving educational trend is a difficult one. As Smith, et al. (1974) question, "how could one program develop competent teachers for open schools, schools without walls, continuous progress schools and others" (p. 34)?

In an effort to address the varied needs of optional alternative public schools, several teacher training institutions have developed programs consistent with the objectives of alternative schools. Indiana University, in the vanguard of this movement, offers several teacher preparation programs which prepare prospective teachers to work in optional alternative programs. In addition to these preparation programs, Indiana University works extensively with inservice programs for teachers and administrators of alternative public schools (Smith, et al., 1974).

In July 1971, funded by the United States Bureau of Education, the National Alternative Schools Program (NASP) was established at the University of Massachusetts in Amherst. The Program, a part of the School of Education, has documented objectives which include:

(1) To advocate the implementation and development of alternative schools with public districts through workshops, conferences, and other means.

(2) To research the developmental issues and variables involved in alternative schools and to disseminate the results.

(3) To provide technical assistance to alternative schools in

planning, evaluation, crisis management, curriculum, and human relations.

(4) To promote collaboration among alternative schools through the creation and support of various school networks.

(5) To create a coordinated inservice-preservice program for training alternative school teachers, and to develop leadership training programs for alternative schools. (NASP. What is NASP)

In addition, the University of Massachusetts offers 41 unique teacher education programs (preservice and inservice) "each with a different thrust and each created in answer to the need for teachers trained and oriented toward a specific kind of student, school, curriculum, or community involvement" (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), 1973, p. 9). For example, the Integrated Day Program offers involvement in the active-integrated learning approach of open education. For those who wish to investigate early childhood education, the Early Childhood Program offers appropriate theoretical and practical orientation. In 1973, the University of Massachusetts received the AACTE Distinguished Achievement Award for excellence in teacher education (AACTE, 1973).

Other higher education institutions offering training in alternative public education include the New School for Behavioral Studies in Education at the University of North Dakota, The Studies for Educational Alternatives at Mankato State College in Mankato, Minnesota, and San Francisco State University, which since 1970 has offered a preservice secondary teacher education program. Several institutions offer individual course work in optional alternative public education including: California State University, Central Michigan University, Glassboro State College, the University of Colorado, Washington University and the University of British Columbia (Smith, et al., 1974).

As teacher training institutions became interested and responded to the growing movement in alternative education, important national organizations discussed the notion of options at their annual and semi-annual conferences. According to Smith, et al. (1974), the following organizations have taken an important look at the notion of optional alternative public education: the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, the American Association of School Administrators, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the National School Boards Association, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Summary

As interest and exploration in alternatives increased through the involvement of colleges and universities in both preservice and inservice work, advocates asserted and continue to emphasize the realistic, practical nature of the movement. In the professional journals, Fantini (1973a), Clark, (1973), Smith, et al. (1974), Barr (1974) and others stress that giving students, teacher and parents choice of learning and teaching environments will not solve all the problems faced by public education. As Clark (1973) clearly states, "I hold no illusions that options in public education are the key to all needed change in school. Surely public school systems need to employ a variety of change strategies to solve their problems" (p. 2). Yet, choice of learning and teaching environment is an important step in the direction of providing for a more satisfied public and provisioning for a quality education. The movement toward public schools of choice is supported by many teacher education programs across the country which have evolved with respect for educational options in public schools.

G. Problems of Educational Options

As Barr (1974), Fantini (1973c), Paskal and Miller (1975), and others continued to describe options in public education and as more schools offered options, critics emerged citing problems which they claim to be inherent in the movement. Broudy (1973) views the alternative school movement as a massive experiment with the children as the guinea pigs. In a highly critical article in *Phi Delta Kappan* (1973), Broudy suggests the "possible irreversible adverse effects of educational experiments" (p. 438).

Deal (1975) identifies several reasons why secondary alternatives have failed, including falling "victim to pressures exerted by the 'establishment' whose vested interests are protected by conventional schooling" (p. 10). Deal also points to an association with the counter-culture which has been problem-producing. Yet, Deal maintains that the central problem is lack of internal strength and knowledge "to cope with the organizational problems produced by new authority patterns and by highly complex educational processes" (p. 10).

In advocating options in public schools, Kammann (1972) also describes the problem of particular options creating a discriminatory system through their appeal to certain races, sexes, social classes or ethnic groups. Black House, one of Berkeley's alternatives, once accepted only Black members. Pressure from the community as well as Health, Education, and Welfare's Office of Civil Rights forced a change in this practice (Barr, et al., 1972). Kammann (1972) asserts that it is the role of the school board to prevent such discrimination. "Consequently, it may have to place upper and lower limits on the representation of minority groups in any particular educational program" (p. 38).

Terrell's research confirms the seriousness of this problem of options appealing to particular types of people. * Terrell reports that "higher achievers chose to attend alternative schools which were less structured (e.g., the Open School)" (p. 8). **

In addition, Terrell maintains that students attending the less structured options "were from homes with parents who have higher professional occupations and backgrounds than the parents of the students who chose to attend the more structured options" (p. 8). This validly suggests that specific options may appeal to particular types of students and parents. Unless this problem is recognized, optional alternative schools may be creating undesirable segregation in our public schools.

Fantini (1975) states that "perhaps the major weakness so far is that many school districts view alternatives as 'dumping ground' for special cases" (p. 74). The result is that many parents believe that options are only for the "difficult child." This calls for major educational strategies to counter this problem.

Broudy (1973) identifies several other potential problems. Advocates of options in public education generally claim that students and parents are capable of making responsible choices based on intelligent reasoning. Broudy (1973) questions how such responsible choices can be made when the educational goals and objectives of various programs are camouflaged in vague and somewhat ambiguous rhetoric. In addition, Broudy (1973) claims that "at the moment many of the pressures for alternatives can be construed as a flight from responsibility for and commitment to formal schooling" (p. 440). In discussing the claim that we have a monolithic educational system, Broudy (1973) states that "the amount of uniformity in the American public schools is highly overrated" (p. 440). Responding to the notion that individual differences in learners warrant different learning environments to address those differences, Broudy (1973) affirms that such differences "often can be met without necessarily setting up alternative schools" (p. 440). To those who maintain that our diverse, pluralistic culture requires a plurality of learning environments, Broudy (1973) retorts:

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* No date is indicated on this reference. See bibliography.

** In reality, there is generally greater internal structure within such an alternative school. Both students and teachers cooperatively make decisions regarding curriculum, evaluation, rules, etc., a process requiring a greater degree of structure.

> For there to be a plurality of cultures, each culture must have some kind of unity by which it can be distinguished from the others, and there must be some kind of unity among the cultures that makes it possible for us to speak of a pluralistic society rather than a collection of discrete societies. (p. 440)

Smith (1973a) suggests, fundamentally, that "change must be based on something more substantial than the slogans, idealogical zealotry, and utopian sentimentality that all too often mark the movement for alternative schools" (p. 433). Smith (1973a) further perceives the danger that some of the very positive educational programs may be overshadowed and possibly disappear as a result of the attention given to optional alternatives.

Many of the problems cited thus far, including a lack of theoretical base (Smith, 1973a) and an overrated uniformity in our schools (Broudy, 1973), have been documented by those not directly involved in the optional alternative movement. This is not to suggest that only those "outside the movement" have perceived problems. One of the most comprehensive lists of problems associated with options derives from the faculty at Berkeley's Experimental Schools Project.

The Berkeley Unified School District in Berkeley, California, questioned the faculty of their numerous alternative programs in an effort to describe basic problems. In a Report to the United States Office of Education in 1972, the following problems were identified:

(1) Lack of inservice training.

(2) Lack of cohesiveness in the alternatives structured to serve students only part of their time at school.

(3) Covert hostility, particularly between those teachers and parents who are not a part of alternative program and see alternatives as creating a drain on the regular program.

(4) Directing a multiplicity of programs.

(5) Communication problem.

(6) Many of the sites are now really grappling with the problem of how to effectively deliver the basic academic skills to all children.

(7) Some of the sites are struggling with the need to determine how much discipline and structure is appropriate.

(8) Traditional methods of keeping parents and community informed are not sufficient. . .creative and new approaches to community awareness and information are needed.

(9) Staff is finding out that parents have many different ideas on what true community involvement means. There is a need to help directors and staff learn how to share the decision-making process (Fantini, 1973c, p. 115).

Smith, et al. (1974), advocates of options in public education, elaborate upon several problems faced by alternative public schools.

(1) *Stigma* — In the past, many options were created to help dropouts and discipline problems. This connotation of the term "option" or "alternative" has remained in the minds of many people. The thought of sending their child to an optional alternative evokes immediate suspicion that the child is of less than "normal" behavior or intelligence. Furthermore, many other people believe alternative schools to be "free schools" where there is virtually unlimited freedom. In effect, the unfortunate fact is that "in some communities there is a stigma on the alternative school concept" (Smith, et al., 1974, p. 27).

(2) *Alternative by Fiat* — As discussed earlier, mandating educational change is often the common mode for innovation in our public schools. An overenthusiastic administrator may

attempt to implement an optional alternative school without first analyzing the needs of the community with members of that community. As a result, parents, teachers and students may become somewhat hostile and uncooperative when forced to adopt a particular learning environment.

(3) *Educational Faddism* — On occasion, a problem arises in a community where a nearby town has established successful options within its public schools. "Just because another community has a successful alternative school is not an adequate reason for every other community to copy it" (Smith, et al., 1974, p. 28).

(4) *Inadequate Planning Time* — When any new program or school begins operation, it is important to have sufficient planning time to insure, as much as possible, successful implementation. This is essential when an optional alternative is established. Unfortunately, all too often, teachers and administrators either underestimate the time needed to plan or they simply are not given sufficient time. As discussed earlier, Sarason (1971) perceives this as a typical problem.

(5) *Overenthusiasm* — In all communities, there are always those individuals who desire to remove the conventional methods of operation. Smith, et al. (1974) assert that "they know what they are fleeing from but not what they are fleeing to" (p. 28). Often, there is internal quarreling within groups of such individuals with the result, a poorly planned optional alternative.

(6) *Overexposure* — A successful optional program often attracts the interest of the media as well as large numbers of interested visitors. As considerable attention is directed toward the alternative, a resentment may build in many of those people not a part of the alternative because they feel that their programs are just as important and valid as the alternative. In addition, a tangential problem may arise because "too much media coverage too soon can make normal developmental problems appear to be major catastrophes to the community at large" (Smith, et al., 1974, p. 28).

(7) *Funding* — If a new structure or major reconditioning of an old building is required to house an optional program, there is predictable resistance to funding such a project. Especially with school budgets as restricted as they are, communities are less

likely to look favorably upon an alternative school requiring many thousands of dollars to build the physical structure.

Broudy (1973), Deal (1975), Kammann (1972) and others have described problems associated with optional alternatives in public education. Several of these problems, including inadequate planning time (Smith, et al., 1974), lack of theoretical justification (Smith, 1973a), and discriminatory options (Kammann, 1972), are serious in nature and, if not addressed, can destroy the possibility of successful implementation and perpetuation of the optional alternative. Chapter III of this study provides specific strategies which should inhibit the incidence of these and other identified problems.

Problems of the School Within A School Option

The School Within a School, in addition to facing many of these problems, inherits additional problems. A curriculum Report of NASSP (March 1973) identified both territoriality and rules as very typical problems of the SWS alternative. Smith, et al. (1974) insist that "it is difficult to have different rules and regulations for different groups within the same building" (p. 29). For example, the conventional program may require children to walk silently in straight lines to and from their classroom. The alternative program, an open classroom environment, for example, may allow children privileges of quiet conversation and informal movement when in transit. It is understandable that resentments may built in children and teachers when two diverse classes pass in the hall. Many perceive the alternative program as representing a criticism of the traditional one and thereby a threatening force (Hansen, 1976).

Similarly, labeling can be a problem in a SWS. If, for example, the alternative program is referred to as "open", "individualized", and "humanistic", teachers from the conventional program may ask if this suggests that their classes are "closed", "non-individualized" and "dehumanistic" (Fantini, 1973c). The traditional program's faculty "may harbor feelings of superiority because they truly believe the alternative is not 'education' because they are threatened by it, or simply because it is different" (Stark, 1973, p. 95).

Even teachers' meetings are potentially explosive when teachers from different programs are together to discuss scheduling, student placement, funding, supplies, discipline, student teachers, evaluation, etc. Since teachers often perceive these particulars of teaching from the perspective of their specific program, conflict can easily result.

Fantini (1973c) identifies another important problem faced by the SWS alternative. An established school, over a period of years, develops a particular social system within a framework of acceptable patterns of behavior. A new optional program can encroach upon this unique culture, resulting in discord within the faculty.

Hansen (1976) identifies a problem which exists as a result of the insignificant publicity on the SWS. Maintaining a low profile can limit the opportunities to interact with other educators and learn from them as well.

Fantini (1973c), Hansen (1976), Smith, et al. (1974) and Stark (1973) have identified problems specific to the School Within a School. It is paradoxical that the SWS, one of the most popular optional alternatives (Barr, 1975), appears to have the most potential problems. Further examination of Schools Within Schools is justified and included in subsequent chapters.

Summary

In discussing optional public school alternatives, both critics and advocates have documented numerous problems associated with the SWS and alternative public schools in general. This inventory of problems includes lack of internal strength and knowledge (Deal, 1975), discriminatory options (Kammann, 1972; Terrell), alternatives perceived as "dumping grounds" (Fantini, 1975), unclear and nonspecific goals and objectives (Broudly, 1973; Smith, 1973), labeling (Fantini, 1973c), superiority complexes (Stark, 1973), limited opportunity to learn from others (Hansen, 1976), stigma, alternatives by fiat, faddism, inadequate planning time, overenthusiasm, overexposure and funding (Smith, et al., 1974). Strategies and procedures to hinder the growth of these potential problems are identified in Chapter III of this study. Certainly it is unrealistic to suggest that all the problems described can be prevented through adherence to particular strategies.

However, it is reasonable to assert that efforts to establish public schools of choice can be greatly facilitated through a comprehensive understanding of the elements described in Chapter III.

H. Implications of Educational Options

The implications of options in public schools in terms of the social and educational potential within the community are important. As Smith (1973a) reports, "the development of options within a community provides opportunities for community involvement in educational decision making" (p. 435). Parents have been vocal in describing their perceived powerlessness in regard to educational decisions which directly affect their children. Many innovations have been instituted in public schools with little more than minor parent involvement. Optional alternative public education places decision-making in the hands of the parents as well as the school officials. This can ably "assist in restoring a sense of lost potency to these central participants" (Fantini, 1973b, p. 14). Smith (1973a) states, "since the alternative school is an option within its community, it does not require consensus to justify its existence" (p. 435). In fact, the needs of a minority in a community can provide sufficient impetus to establish an optional alternative which addresses their needs. Parents who do not support the alternative would not be coerced to accept it since their children could remain in the conventional classrooms. Optional alternatives will "provide a strategy for making schools more responsive to families dissatisfied with conventional schools, without imposing on the rights of those who are satisfied with the present schools" (Smith, 1973a, p. 436).

Community support for educational options will have additional positive implications. Kammann (1972) suggests that providing parents with optional programs and the opportunity to assist in their development will facilitate in creating a community environment where parents "will be more likely to support budgets and referendums" (p. 37). Kammann (1972) adds that "diversity in educational programs and practices is the raw material for innovation and progress" (p. 37). Richard Foster, former Director of Berkeley's Experimental Schools' Project concurs: "I still see alternative schools as a strategy for moving institutions that have a tendency to stay in place" (1976). Barr (1974) suggests that many educators view options in public education as "the only major movement in American education today" (p. 238).

Are optional alternatives just the 1970 version of an educational fad? Smith (1973a) argues that there is a major difference between optional alternatives and the educational fads of the 1960's.

> The attempts of the sixties were all based on intervention strategies. Someone was attempting to do something to change the schools, that is, to make them better for someone else. In alternative public schools, on the other hand, students, parents and teachers choose what is best for themselves. There is no intervention, no coercion; only voluntary choice (p. 437).

A SWS, as well as the other types of optional alternatives, has significance for students, teachers, parents and the community at large. For students and teachers it means the probability of matching learning styles and teaching styles thereby responding to the developmental needs of students. Fantini (1973a) states that "this should increase educational productivity, one of the major concerns of the American public at this time, and should reduce conflict between teachers, parents and students" (p. 448). Dunn and Dunn (1974) report that "striving to provide alternatives for students who learn in different ways is an excellent move toward obtaining increased academic achievement" (p. 275). With empirical support, Hunt (1971) also reports increased academic achievement when learning and teaching styles are appropriately matched. Smith, et al. (1974) maintain that students, teachers and parents "are more loyal to a school they have chosen for them" (p. 13) and that alternative education "creates a spirit of cooperation hard to duplicate in other ways" (p. 13). Hunt (1971), in evaluating an Upward Bound program, asserts that both teacher and student are more comfortable when their teaching and learning styles are complementary. Interestingly, there is little in the professional literature which purports that students are generally happier in a program which readily accommodates to their learning styles. However, increased loyalty (Smith, et al., 1974), academic achievement (Dunn & Dunn, 1974; Hunt, 1974), and comfort (Hunt, 1974) would seem to contribute to a happier student attitude.

Hunt (1972) reports that appropriately matching teaching and learning styles has an important indirect effect upon teachers and administrators. Matching will "clearly increase the sensitivity of the teacher and administrator to the needs of the student" (p. 18).

For parents, optional alternatives mean respect for their rights as decision-makers regarding the education of their children. Fantini (1973b) asserts that when parents make such decisions, "they will become more enthusiastic..., have more contacts with and want to know more about their child's teachers, and will become more involved in the school program" (p. 13). In addition, with optional programs within the community, many parents will not have to assume the financial burden of sending their children to private schools.

For the community, optional alternatives can mean a general support for the school system as well as respect for local ethnic and cultural characteristics. Multi-cultural alternatives recognize ethnic diversity and the need for ethnic identity.

Many implications of options in public schools have been delineated in Section H. These implications include: the probability of matching teaching and learning styles (Dunn & Dunn, 1974; Fantini, 1973c; Hunt, 1971); increased educational productivity (Fantini, 1973a); increased academic achievement (Dunn & Dunn, 1974; Hunt, 1971); greater student, teacher, and parent loyalty to the school (Smith, et al., 1974); increased spirit of cooperation (Smith, et al., 1974); greater student and teacher comfort (Hunt, 1971); and a more supportive parent community (Fantini, 1973b). Finally, as Smith, et al. (1974) indicate, one of the most important implications purports that public schools of choice actively respect the diverse needs of the community. They are a method by which our public schools can be more responsive to the consumers of education.

Summary

Chapter II has presented a review of the professional literature on public schools of choice, with focus on Schools Within Schools.

Its purpose has been to provide foundation for the concept of change in our public schools as well as promote a comprehensive understanding of optional programs.

Section A, entitled *Innovation In Public Education,* illuminates basic strategies of change and developmental approaches which stem from the inter-relationships among students, school personnel, and the local community.

The Change Agent, Section B, suggests the need for a promoter of change who, through a network of clarifying, questioning, and evaluating skills, encourages change in a school. It is clear that a change agent is a prerequisite for efficient, effective change.

The need for alternatives in our schools is detailed in Section C, *Rationale for Educational Options in Public Schools.* Large numbers of Americans are dissatisfied with our schools yet, for most, there are few alternatives. Rather than mandating that all must accept a particular change, educational options provide choice for teacher, learner, and parents, thereby encouraging the compatible matching of teaching and learning styles, as discussed in Chapter I.

The Growth of Educational Options in Public Schools, Section D, describes the nine-year-old movement initiated by the Parkway Program in Philadelphia in 1969. By 1975, hundreds of educational options existed throughout the country with almost half situated in California, New York, and Washington.

Basic examples of options are described in Section E, *Categories of Educational Options.* They include: The Open Alternative, the Learning Center Alternative, the Multi-Cultural Alternative, the Community Based Alternative, the Continuation Alternative, the Multi-Aged Alternative, and the School Within a School Alternative. Comparative percentage distributions indicate that the SWS is becoming the most popular educational option.

Section F, *Support from Teacher Education Programs,* describes the efforts of Indiana University, the University of Massachusetts, and the University of North Dakota, among others, to train teachers for optional alternative public schools and provide for inservice growth as well.

Problems of Educational Options, Section G, inventories many difficulties with educational options, such as lack of internal strength, discriminatory options, unclear goals, labeling, superiority complexes, stigma, faddism, overenthusiasm, and overexposure.

Finally, Section H. entitled *Implications of Educational Options*, clarifies many implications such as compatible teaching and learning styles in a classroom; increased academic achievement; greater loyalty, cooperation and comfort; and increased community support.

The notion of public schools of choice has received wide attention in the professional literature. In just 9 years, the movement has significantly grown and is currently recognized as an important educational trend in this country. Yet, paradoxically, one of the most popular alternatives, the School Within a School, is one about which educators know very little. Barr (1975) describes the surge of growth of the SWS. Hansen (1973) suggests that, as an option, it may have the greatest chance for success although it is complex in both design and operation. Smith (1970) notes the insufficient documentation specific to the SWS alternative. Responding to this apparent dearth of information and with recognition of the increasing popularity of this alternative, Chapter III of this study presents an identification and description of elements characteristics of the School Within a School.

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III

ELEMENTS CHARACTERISTIC OF A SCHOOL WITHIN A SCHOOL

Through an examination of the need to compatibly match teaching and learning style and to encourage childrens' development toward independence and intra-interpersonal maturity, Chapter I furnished an introduction to the concept of public schools of choice.

Chapter II provided a survey and analysis of the related professional literature on options in public education. Based on the questions identified in Chapter I and distilled from the review of the literature in Chapter II, Chapter III of this study describes important elements characteristic of the School Within a School (SWS). Each identified element, intended as an objective rather than an absolute, can contribute significantly to a foundation facilitating the operation of the SWS and is described in terms of its relationship to the teacher, student, administrator and the school community.

[1] What Kind Of Theoretical Framework And Objectives Should Optional Alternatives Possess?

Public school programs have a responsibility to the community and the society at large to employ a wide range of objectives. These objectives are often described as adhering to both affective and cognitive domains while emphasizing a particular approach such as open education or a multi-cultural orientation.

Many educators suggest that the free school movement in this country failed because of its reliance upon one basic objective — happiness through individual freedom. This focus on affective concerns is certainly valid, yet, an optional alternative has an obligation to include cognitive development as a major area of the curriculum. Any option must demonstrate a balance between the cognitive and affective in its stated objectives.

Fantini (1973c) asserts that public school objectives must include: (1) Basic learning to acquire skills — reading, writing, communications, inquiring, analyzing, etc., (2) Talent development — developing individual creative potentialities, (3) Preparation for basic success in assuming major societal careers as parent, consumer, citizen, self-developing individual (p. 26). These objectives must be recognized and adhered to by all programs within the school. For example, in a school with a conventional and an open education program, both the conventional and open programs must conform basically to the same set of standards.

Smith, et al. (1974) also agree that there is need for a balanced set of affective-cognitive objectives. They suggest the objectives involve six general areas: (1) basic skill development, (2) cognitive development, (3) affective development, (4) talent development, (5) career development, (6) role development (citizen-voter, consumer-critic, parent-spouse) (Smith, et al., 1974, p. 20). Methods, scheduling, evaluation, and the general educational approach may vary from program to program within the school, yet the notion remains that public schools have a responsibility to balance affective and cognitive emphasis and not to focus so heavily on one while sacrificing another.

In a more global sense, as indicated in Chapter I, the ultimate aim should be encouraging self-directed individuals and increasing intra-interpersonal maturity (Hunt, 1972). A classroom environment should be an important factor leading toward that fundamental aim. Thus, the comprehensive objectives have, at their core, the focus on self-direction and intra-interpersonal maturity.

By basing optional programs on comprehensive objectives, fewer individuals will perceive a program's goals as unclear or foundation as lacking substance. In addition, an acceptance of, and commitment to, both affective and cognitive concerns, will reduce the number of critics who attribute a basic skill neglect to optional alternatives. Rather than lacking responsibility, as some critics have claimed, options based on comprehensive objectives are highly responsible to the needs of the community as well as to the fundamental obligations of a public school.

In addition to comprehensive objectives, an optional alternative must be supported by a sound theoretical justification. A single educator's opinion that children should be taught in a particular manner is not sufficient theoretical justification for adoption of an optional program. The educational approach utilized must have substantial support from the literature with specific evidence of educational and psychological foundation.

The open alternative is an appropriate example of an option with abundant theoretical justification. Open education has been recognized as a legitimate direction for many years. With foundation in the philosophy of Pestalozzi, Herbart, Dewey, and Piaget, among others, with contemporary support from a multitude including Barth (1974), Blitz (1973), Kohl (1969), Nyquist and Hawes (1972), and Silberman (1970), and with years of demonstrated successes in Great Britain and in the United States, open education has cohesive justification.

Sarason (1971) asserts the importance of theoretical supports for alternatives and insists that such justification is a prerequisite for change in our schools. When confronted by a strong theoretical justification, critics who perceive options as based simply on slogans and sentiment will be quieted.

The cardinal nature of a comprehensive set of objectives with a solid theoretical base cannot be overemphasized. Many of the problems associated with a SWS, as discussed in Chapter II, can be minimized if all programs are cognizant of their responsibility to adhere to comprehensive objectives. Rather than being a confining factor to an option within a school, this shared understanding is a facilitating agent which will aid in creating a supportive, coexisting environment — a vital quality of the SWS. This coexisting nature is of prime importance. Without it, the School Within a School becomes little more than an educational battleground with particular options fighting for status, influence and students, while continually criticizing one another.

Element 1. *Optional Alternatives Must Have Theoretical Justification And Be Based On Comprehensive Objectives.*

[2] What Is The Optimal Size Of An Optional Alternative Program?

Usually, a large school with a student body of 800, 1,000 or more students, has a tendency to be, as a consequence of its complexity, more bureaucratic and more reluctant to innovation than a smaller school of 300 or 400 students (Barr, 1974; Paskal & Miller, 1973; Postman, 1974). One must not assume that smaller schools entirely lack the bureaucracy which usually distinguishes the larger ones. Rather, "the critical difference is that formal bureaucratic approaches are more easily changed in smaller districts where there is the leadership to do so" (Paskal & Miller, 1973, p. 53). With smaller numbers of staff, administrators, parents and students, communication is often facilitated and decisions are frequently made with rapidity. Within smaller schools, there is often a more informal atmosphere which can be helpful for implementing an optional program.

In describing the Ford Foundation's experience in helping schools innovate, Meade (1973) suggests that smaller schools "changed faster and were easier to work with than a more complex one" (p. 24). Educators contemplating a new option within a school can make more accurate predictions of time and progress if the size of the school is recognized as an important ingredient affecting innovation.

In addition to the correlation of size to bureaucracy, there are important reasons why the optional program, itself, should be small in size. Most options are an attempt to reduce the impersonality produced in a large, bureaucratic school. There is generally an emphasis on individuality in optional alternatives. Such a focus is difficult to achieve if a large, bureaucratic school is simply divided into two or three large, bureaucratic options.

This study establishes an enrollment of 350 students as the upper limit for an optional program. Why is 350 established as the upper limit? In answering this question, it is suggested that the number 350 is not absolute. In one public school, an enrollment of 200 students in an optional program may approach that upper limit while in another school 400 enrolled students may still serve to facilitate the desired personal informality. Postman (1974) asserts that there exists a "law of group ecology which states that when you go beyond a certain number, you deteriorate into a bureaucracy, the purposes of which are no longer related to the purposes of individuals comprising the group" (p. 61). Postman perceives that number as approximately 250. Paskal & Miller (1973) suggest that "with more than 200 pupils some degree of impersonality and anonymity creeps in" (p. 47), although they establish their upper limit as approximately 500 students. Barr (1974) does not state limits numerically, yet insists that flexibility, a quality generally desired by options, is somewhat decreased when programs have too large a student enrollment. Based on these estimates and the fact that the vast majority of options enroll from 30 to 400 students (Curriculum Report, NASSP, 1973), this study has placed the upper limit at approximately 350 students. It is important to consider that rarely are more than 500 students involved in any type of alternative school, be it a SWS, multi-cultural or continuation alternative (Paskal & Miller, 1973).

All schools considering the implementation of an optional program must address the issue of size. Fewer communication problems, typical of large, bureaucratic schools, will arise if optional programs enroll approximately 350 students or fewer. Certainly this does not preclude a large school of 1,000 students establishing a successful option enrolling 500. Yet, beyond a certain number, educators may perceive that many of their important objectives have been sacrificed in the complexity of the bureaucracy they have created.

Element 2. *Optional Alternatives Should Be Small In Size With Generally Fewer Than 350 Students.*

[3] Who Should Be Involved In Decisions Relating To The Implementation And Perpetuation Of The Optional Alternative?

The fundamental belief that administrators, teachers, students and parents should all be actively involved in establishing and maintaining an optional program within a school is thoroughly supported in the literature (Fantini, 1973c; Guro, 1971; Hersey & Blanchard, 1972; Kammann, 1972; Sarason, 1971; Smith, et al., 1974; Sparks, 1974). However, it must be mentioned from the outset that there is little empirical evidence to support this postulate (Association of California School Administrators (ACSA), 1972; Gross, et al., 1968). Furthermore, shared decision-making (SDM), in and of itself, is certainly not a guarantee of a successful option. "To date, clear superiority of shared decision processes over individual processes has not been conclusively established" (ACSA, 1972, p. 67). Yet, there is an abundance of conceptual data which strongly advocate and emphasize the importance of a SDM approach.

Berman (1971) states that the human internal drive to gain control of one's world can be partially satisfied by sharing in decisions which affect one's life. Moreover, utilizing a SDM approach, decision-makers "tend to take greater responsibility for those decisions in which they have participated" (ACSA, 1972, pp.

1-2). From decisions arrived at in such a manner, teachers, students, parents and administrators can more easily identify with the optional program, can sense a degree of control surrounding it, and are thereby able to achieve a sense of personal meaning (Combs, 1971). With this personal meaning and identification, decision-makers are also more likely to support decisions and the steps required for implementation and perpetuation of the optional alternative (ACSA, 1972; Berman, 1971; Pharis, Robison, & Walden, 1970).

An important extension of responsibility is commitment to the particular program within the school. Professional commitment to an idea, process or decision can be a very strong support structure. It can render the dynamics needed to transform a decision from words into actions. Certainly, many variables affect the degree of commitment teachers, administrators, and parents experience, yet "involvement in decisions has emerged as a powerful aspect for the development of commitment" (ACSA, 1972, p. 2).

In addition to the increased responsibility, identification, and commitment which individuals feel when directly involved in decisions to establish an optional alternative, advocates of the School Within a School should be cognizant of other advantages of SDM. By including parents, teachers, students and administrators as members of the innovating team, a complex filtering mechanism is created. The extensive and varied knowledge and professional experience of the decision-makers provide for a more objective analysis of potential problems and direction. Such a filtering mechanism is a valuable asset and can "act as a control against premature closure and the tendency to think that there is only one way by which problems may be viewed and handled" (Sarason, 1971, p. 161).

Smith, et al. (1974) report that a shared decision-making approach can help "establish a healthy interaction which creates a spirit of cooperation hard to duplicate in other ways" (p. 13). Without this cooperation, instituting an optional alternative within a school can become most difficult. With it, there is a strengthening of interpersonal relations — teacher to administrator, parent to teacher, and parent to administrator.

The concept of cooperation generally expands and includes the other program(s) within the school. Helpful in encouraging communication, cooperation facilitates the notion of coexistence within the school.

With shared responsibility, identification, commitment, and cooperation among teachers, administrators, students, and parents, an abundance of internal strength is created. Further, stigma becomes less of a problem within a coexisting atmosphere with less possibility of hostility being directed toward a new program. Within a school atmosphere of cooperation and coexistence, less competition and territoriality between programs is evident.

Certainly, a SDM approach, singly, will not eliminate all the problems identified in Chapter II. Yet, with teachers, students, parents and administrators significantly involved in decisions which encourage responsibility, identification, and commitment, many problems of the School Within a School, described in Chapter II can be reduced or even eliminated. The shared decision-making strategy can provide an important underpinning for successful implementation and perpetuation of an optional alternative.

Element 3. *Administrators, Teachers, Students, And Parents Should Be Significantly Involved In Decisions Regarding The Implementation And Perpetuation Of The Optional Alternative.*

[4] How Should Teacher And Student Participation In The Optional Alternative Be Determined?

The heart of the School Within a School concept is respect for choice — choice for teachers, students, and their parents. Simply stated, in a school which offers three types of learning environments such as the Stadium School in Cranston, Rhode Island, teachers and students have the opportunity of choosing a program which they believe best correlates with their teaching or learning style.

There are many direct and indirect advantages of choice concerning educational environments. Perhaps the most outstanding advantage is the facilitating of compatible teaching and learning styles within a particular option. As stated in Chapter I, a potentially compatible match occurs when a group of children with inductive learning styles are taught by a teacher implementing inductive teaching methods, and conversely, deductive learning styles are matched with a deductive teaching style. Or, in terms of Hunt's (1972) developmental stages, a compatible match occurs when a learning environment addresses a child's contemporaneous (immediate) and developmental (long-term) needs. The consequences of a compatible match include increased academic achievement (Dunn & Dunn, 1974), and comfort for both student and teacher (Hunt, 1974).

Smith, et al. (1974), with reference to the psychology of choice, assert that students, parents, and teachers are more loyal to a program they have selected. This allegiance creates an internal support which is experienced by all involved. Furthermore, Paskal and Miller (1973) state that choice for teachers and students (and their parents), "best generates supporters for all approaches" (p. 51). This, in turn, facilitates coexisting programs within one school.

Generally, students who choose the environment in which they are to learn are more satisfied and more motivated than students not involved in such decisions (Fantini, 1973b). Satisfaction and motivation are keys to student happiness and productivity, resulting in increased teacher happiness and productivity as well.

Parents must be actively involved in helping their child choose an educational environment most consistent with the child's learning style. In order to make the optimal choice, parents and students need to acquire as much information as possible concerning the programs offered. In recognition of this need, programs must utilize various strategies to inform and involve parents and students, in order that they may make an intelligent choice. It also is the responsibility of the school to inform parents of general learning styles and to discuss the learning style specific to their children. Only then can parents make an informed choice of the optimal learning environment for their children focusing on an accurate matching of learning and teaching styles.

The value of choice, although integral to a SWS, is not absolute. In a case where a particular optional program, through its appeal to a specific sex, race, or ethnic group, creates a discriminatory system, the local school board must provide for the desired integration. The potential problem of discriminating options is anathema to American public education, principles and ideals.

If the school and parents disagree on the placement of their child, the parents' choice is honored. However, such a situation does not often occur. For example, only once at the Stadium School, a School Within a School in Cranston, Rhode Island, did parents overrule the placement suggestion of the school (Rozen, 1976). Generally, there is agreement on the particular learning environment most appropriate to the needs of the specific child.

In addition to complementing teaching and learning styles, increasing academic achievement and comfort for both student and teacher, and facilitating the coexisting nature of a School Within a School, the concept of choice has further significance. Consistent with American values and tenets, the concept of choice is at the heart of our American Constitution and Bill of Rights. It is highly appropriate for the philosophy represented in those documents to be reflected in our American schools.

Element 4. *Teacher And Student Participation In The Optional Alternative Must Be Voluntary, Based On Choice Rather Than Fiat.*

[5] What Are The Implications Of Student Race, Religion, Sex, and Ethnic Background In The Design Of Optional Alternatives?

Options must be open to all students in the community. Neither through deliberate actions nor through unintentional occurences can particular options be allowed to enroll students only with specific characteristics.

The serious potential problem of exclusivity will occur when particular options, through an appeal to specific personal qualities of the students, create a discriminatory system. Terrell's research, discussed in Chapter II, confirms that particular types of students choose specific options.

How can the possibility of discriminatory options be reduced if not eliminated? The most desired strategy is one which would not require any outside intervention to balance classroom make-up. Rather, through the natural selection procedures of students and their parents, there would be a heterogeneous mixture. To encourage this natural integration, a SWS must thoroughly inform the community of the specific options available within the school. Students and parents must understand the comprehensive objectives adhered to by all programs (as described in Element 1). In emphasizing these comprehensive objectives, students and parents are encouraged to see the commonalities as well as the differences between programs and their developmental nature and aim. Also, there must be detailed explanation of the intent to match learning and teaching styles within the school while stressing the fact that all programs are legitimate educational environments. These procedures will likely reduce the stereotyping of options by parents and their children by promoting the quality of all programs.

If, despite this community education strategy, there remains a discriminatory option, it is the responsibility of the school administrators, with support from the school board, to integrate the option to basically reflect the make-up of the community. As Fantini (1973a) asserts, "deliberate exclusivity cannot be condoned and is a criterion for determining whether a public school alternative is legitimate" (p. 445).

It must be noted that multi-cultural programs within the school have a responsibility to balance their student enrollment so that it is representative of the community. Simply because there is a cultural focus in a program does not permit it to practice exclusivity. For those parents who desire an exclusive classroom enrollment for their children, there are many private institutions. Our public schools have the obligation of equalizing educational opportunity for all.

If it is common knowledge that optional alternatives cannot and will not condone exclusivity, fewer individuals will attempt to manipulate the option for segregation purposes. Yet, to be an effective counter-force against those desirous of an exclusive option, school administrators must examine the enrollment of options and be prepared, if necessary, to act decisively. It is unfortunate that this qualification must be placed on the granting of choice. It is deplorable that some members of the educational community would seek to use optional alternatives in our public schools as instruments for segregation.

Terrell's research indicates unintentional segregation by academic level and socio-economic background. School administrators must be cognizant of this research and encourage an enrollment which reflects the composition of the community. Unawareness of this potential problem serves to strengthen the possibility of its occurence.

Smith, et al. (1974) state that "the ultimate goal within any community should be to provide every parent with meaningful choice about his child's education" (p. 12). Yet this cannot include a learning environment which is discriminatory. It is to the advantage of the entire community as well as the society at large, that optional alternatives in our public schools integrate sexes, races, religions, ethnic backgrounds, etc., within learning environments. One of the strengths of our country lies in its cultural diversity. Our public schools have the responsibility to reflect this heterogeneous quality within classroom environments.

Element 5. Optional Alternatives Cannot Practice Exclusivity With Regard To Sex, Race, Religion, Or Ethnic Background.

[6] How Should The Various Programs Within The School Be Perceived, In Terms Of Relative Value, By Faculty, Administration, Children, And Community?

Postman (1974) asserts that there must be "a continuum of options, rather than a hierarchy" (p. 62). Although seemingly simplistic, this statement has important, far-reaching implications.

The concept of optional alternatives suggests that some children's learning styles are better served by a classroom environment which differs from the conventional. This is not a negation of the conventional mode, but rather a statement of the need for additional learning environments to meet the needs of a variety of learning styles, teaching modes, and parent aims. Optional alternatives should not be misconstrued as placing values on various teaching styles. Within basic standards of public education which address a comprehensive set of objectives, detailed in Element 1, a variety of teaching styles are acceptable from deductive to inductive in nature.

A School Within a School which neglects to emphasize the legitimacy of its optional programs, including the conventional program as a viable option, invites internal and external discord destructive to the notion of coexisting programs within one school. This point cannot be overemphasized. A continuum of options, rather than a hierarchy, is a major foundational structure supporting the SWS.

The perception of either a hierarchy or a continuum by the community is determined, in large measure, by the school administration and faculty. They set the standard which the children and their parents follow. If administrators and-or faculty believe that one option is better than another for all children, that value judgment will assimilate the thinking of students and their parents. If school administrators and faculty believe that all options are legitimate educational environments, they can help students and parents to support that belief and act in the spirit of it.

Often administrators and faculty will place values on particular options without being cognizant of the consequences. A prime example of this occurs when a specific option is labeled "individualistic", "humanistic", etc. To many, this establishes the remaining option(s) as "non-individualistic" or "dehumanistic" (Fantini, 1973c). As expected, a stigma is then placed on a particular option, resulting in a hierarchy. As Stark (1973) suggests, simple labeling can inadvertently place values on options, resulting in faculty and student feelings of superiority or inferiority from association with particular programs.

Administrators and faculty, through an understanding of the concept of matching learning and teaching styles, should be encouraged to actively support all programs within the school. This will not negate the excellence or growth of any program. Rather, it will announce to the community that the public school offers several quality programs designed to meet the pluralistic needs of the society it serves and to meet the child's developmental needs.

It is not sufficient for administrators and teachers to simply understand the legitimate nature of the programs within the school. It is incumbent upon them to actively articulate this notion to each other, as well as to parents, media, school visitors, etc. Through such procedures, an internal strength evolves, facilitating quality education and reducing, if not eliminating, the potential problems derived from a hierarchical concept. Further, faculty hiring procedures must identify educators who perceive various optional programs as legitimate educational environments. Respect and provision for options coexisting within a school is a function of the degree to which administrators and faculty accept and articulate the legitimacy of the various options.

Element 6. *All Programs Within The School Must Be Viewed As Legitimate Educational Environments.*

[7] How Should An Optional Alternative's Developmental And Operational Cost Factors Compare To That Of The Conventional Program?

Economic implications always have a direct influence on the state of education. In the 1960's, when there were abundant resources available to develop and operate programs, the question of cost was not necessarily a priority factor. The economic constrictions of the 1970's have radically altered this perspective. The cost of a new option within a school is a major concern of school administrators. As Smith, et al. (1974) report, "during the past decade the cost of public education increased at a rate significantly faster than the increase in the national economy" (p. 15). Paskal and Miller (1973) contend that presently, "cost accountability is a survival factor" (p. 51). Fantini (1973c) adds, "soon monetary pressures will have conditioned the voter to reject and plan for school improvement on the simple basis of finance" (p. 202).

With the recognition of a lack of financial resources, and with an awareness of a general reluctance to establish a costly new program, optional alternatives within a school should be developed and operate on cost equal to, or less than, the conventional program. Failure is almost certain if innovators attempt to create a new program within the school which would require high initial planning funds as well as frequent financial transfusions to maintain operation.

Normally, modest funds are necessary to plan and develop any new program. Many communities may provide meager funds for developing, yet there is no guarantee of such assistance. A new program will increase its chances of survival if no additional monies are necessary. Fantini (1973c) states, "when optional education is presented at the same or slightly lower per student cost, then school district leaders are more likely to be sympathetic" (p. 170).

Interestingly, there is a positive by-product of this financial plight. When a new program does receive large amounts of funding for planning, development and operation, a resentment may readily form among the teachers, students, and parents of the conventional program. Typically, in the 1960's teachers were paid to plan their optional program during the summer months. The remaining teachers within the school did not necessarily have such an opportunity to increase their earnings through the summer. This discrepancy in earning potential can be a source of resentment. Moreover, during the school year hostility might increase as the newly implemented program received great quantities of new books, instructional kits, audio-visual equipment, furniture, etc. If a new program is developed and operates on a cost no greater than the conventional program, such resentment and hostility, resulting from different financial bases, would not materialize. Certainly, there are many factors which could serve to foster negative attitudes toward programs. But a major factor is the relative cost of operating various programs.

Fortunately, the School Within a School, by design, is not affected by the lack of financial resources to the same degree as other educational alternatives requiring new or refurbished buildings. As Fantini (1973c) notes, "since schools within schools make use of existing facilities and personnel, there is merely a reutilization of available resources" (p. 74). Unquestionably, those desirous of creating a new optional program should apply for federal, state, and-or local funding. Yet, the national economic condition may preclude financial assistance. Those interested in establishing a new program must be aware of that potentiality. Although it may limit many educators in their planning for change, it is by no means a fatal limitation. Schools Within Schools can continue to grow without additional financial incentive.

> Element 7. *Optional Alternatives Should Be Developed And Operate On Cost Equal To, Or Less Than, The Conventional Program.*

[8] How Should Student Placement Decisions Be Determined?

Awarding final placement authority to the student's parents has already been briefly discussed in the context of Element 4. However, its importance warrants additional comment.

This study has previously established the value of involving parents in decisions affecting their child's education. One of the most important decisions addresses the question of which educational environment best serves a student's needs. Parents, in order to make an intelligent choice, must be thoroughly acquainted with the commonalities and differences between programs and be knowledgeable of their child's specific learning style. Naturally, through years of observation, discussion and living with the child, parents gain an important conception of their child's learning style. Although an invaluable resource needed to make an intelligent decision regarding placement, such experience with the child is not sufficient input. The professional suggestions and recommendations of school faculty and administrators are necessary ingredients if a placement decision is to reflect a substantial understanding of the child's learning style (Fantini, 1973c).

Administrators have particular insights which often prove helpful. Even more valuable are the impressions and suggestions of the child's teacher as well as specialists in the school who have contact with the student. School administrators and faculty provide an important dimension helpful in placement decisions.

In many cases, consultation with the student is of benefit in making placement decisions. Children and young adults all have opinions and impressions which should be considered. The older the student, the greater the ability to articulate preferences of learning environments.

The placement decision is a crucial one and requires the perceptions of many individuals. The school administrators and teachers may recommend and even urge that a child be placed in a particular learning environment. Yet the ultimate choice rests with the parents. Similar to a doctor's recommendation of an operation for a patient, the final decision rests with the patient — the consumer. Although the opinions of school professionals have significant merit, the parents serve as spokespersons for the consumers of education — the children.

As supported earlier in this study in Element 5, the only time that parents should not have the ultimate decision occurs when there is evidence that a particular option, unintentionally or otherwise, is discriminating. In such an instance, the school must balance enrollment so that it reflects the composition of the community. Otherwise, parents maintain the final authority for selection of a learning environment for their children. Such selection should be based on conferences with the child's present teacher as well as impressions of the school administrators and specialists. Through such a procedure, there is increased opportunity for appropriately matching learning and teaching styles.*

> Element 8. *Student Placement Decisions Should Be Based On The Recommendations Of Administrators, Teachers, Parents And Students, With The Ultimate Authority Resting With The Parents.*

[9] What Should Be The Nature Of A Support Structure In A School With Coexisting Alternative Programs?

As a result of its design, the School Within a School is a complex optional alternative. The intention states that two or more programs will coexist within the same school building. Without leadership to guide, support, and reinforce that coexistence, it can readily deteriorate, with internal strife adversely affecting the learning process for all students within the school. Each program will likely have an official coordinator or unofficial leader who provides support for the educational environment and for those who teach and learn within it. Besides this provision of reinforcement for individual options, a school has need for a central figure to facilitate the general coexistence between programs. A principal is often in a position to achieve such ends.

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* Specific matching procedures are delineated in Hunt (1972, pp. 1-22).

The principal can effectively serve as that central figure by setting foundations and policy for the proper functioning of the school. Moreover, the principal is the overseer of change. Havelock (1973) contends that this school administrator "sets the tone, opens the doors, and provides the support (psychological and material) even when he is not the change agent in a formal sense" (p. 10). Sparks (1974) suggests that for a new optional program within a school, the principal's support and encouragement "cannot be overemphasized" (p. 123). Bakalis (1973) states that "there is heavy dependence upon him as an educational leader" (p. 475). The importance of the role is evident, yet, in regard to a School Within a School, the role is critical.

How does the principal provide support for all programs? The notion of reinforcing several programs which utilize different approaches is far from simplistic. Yet there is a fundamental strategy which is helpful. Havelock (1973) asserts that "positive reinforcement is the most important influence on human behavior" (p. 134). Armed with positive reinforcement and a comprehensive understanding of the objectives and theoretical justification of each program, the principal can provide an invaluable support structure for each program separately, as well as for the entire school globally.

The actions of a principal can help determine (1) whether programs are perceived by parents, teachers, and students as a hierarchy of options or as a continuum, and (2) whether parents and teachers feel they are significantly involved in decisions affecting education in the school. Both of these actions are important factors affecting the functioning of a SWS.

In addition to the principal, each program maintains its own support system essential for its operation. Yet, without a central figure to bind the programs, they can remain "distant cousins" with little in common and minimal opportunity and desire to share materials and ideas. Such a situation is unhealthful in an educational institution. Jealousy, animosity, and attitudes of superiority or inferiority develop and the teachers, students and community tend to perceive the options in the nature of a hierarchy. When this condition is created, it may require months, if not years, of discussions, meetings, and planning to provide a semblance of coexistence.

In an effort to establish a support system, the principal must be keenly aware of other potential problems, described in Chapter II, including territoriality, differences in rules, labeling, and the delicate nature of teachers' meetings. There are many practical procedures a principal can implement to reduce the possibility of these problems. One of the most effective strategies involves promoting the acceptance that each program, when theoretically justified and based on a comprehensive set of objectives (Element 1), is a legitimate learning environment (Element 6). If the principal can convey this to the teachers, students, parents and to the community in general, the foundations of a strong support system will have been established and the peaceful coexistence of the programs encouraged.

> Element 9. *All Programs Within The School Must Have A Support System With The Principal Serving As The Central Foundational Support.*

[10] What Kind Of Evaluation Should Be Implemented In An Optional Alternative?

Evaluation is a term which often produces anxiety in teachers as well as students. Many educators exhibit the same tension and frustration when evaluated that their students experience during an examination. Although the term has various connotations, it is often set in a negative framework. This is unfortunate, for evaluation is a key to improvement.

For optional programs, evaluation is an invaluable tool. There is need for both internal (from within the program) and external (from outside of the program) evaluation procedures. Hickey (1972) identifies four relevant purposes for evaluation.

(1) It is imperative that an optional program examine and reexamine itself for the purpose of "internal self-improvement".

(2) An optional program can establish credibility as a legitimate educational environment through evaluation.

(3) It is the responsibility of public school programs to utilize a comprehensive set of objectives. Evaluation is a prime procedure to ensure that, in fact, comprehensive objectives are valued in the

program. Furthermore, evaluation can determine the extent to which those objectives are reached.

(4) In order to examine a student's progress, it is helpful to have an understanding of the degree to which the program itself is successful (Hickey, 1972, p. 2).

The ultimate evaluation for an optional program is its acceptability in the community. As Smith (1973b) states, "the critical test is whether it — the program — attracts and holds students" (p. 9). If a program is poorly evaluated by the community, enrollment drops and the program will eventually cease to function.

A basic problem with this summative evaluation occurs when it is the sole means of assessment, for then it is effective only "after the fact". For example, if an optional program, based on open education philosophy, deteriorates into what resembles a chaotic, free school, it may be months before the community reacts by removing children from that environment. For some of the children within the option, that delay may be costly in terms of cognitive and-or affective development. Certainly, this inherent, summative evaluation is important, yet it cannot exist as the total extent of evaluation. Additional, on-going evaluation processes are necessary if an optional program is to provide a quality education for those within its environment.

Our educational system has adopted a version of an industrial evaluation model, i.e., growth is measured in terms of outcome or product. This is generally determined by a standardized examination. Although this method of evaluation is gainful, it too should not serve as the only method of assessment. As Hickey (1972) states, "standardized tests...if carefully selected can be a useful measurement instrument, provided they are not the only indicator that is used" (p. 6).

Since all optional programs should emphasize affective growth in addition to cognitive development, procedures should be established to evaluate the affective domain as well as the cognitive. An optional program can develop its own procedures. Smith et al (1974) assert that one method is simply to question students and teachers and examine their "candid, personal responses about their educational involvement" (p. 24). This can also be helpful in exploring attitudes toward the various programs, thus providing additional input beneficial in determining the degree of coexistence within the school. Discussions with parents will also prove valuable. In addition, many outside agencies such as the Center for New Schools in Chicago, Illinois as well as the Ford Foundation have established more formal evaluative instruments in the area of affective growth which may be useful for formative evaluation.

Both the informal procedures of questioning students, their parents, and teachers, and the more formal instruments developed by external sources, have value. A variety of methods are necessary to gain a comprehensive assessment, for measurement of affective and cognitive development, and growth toward self-direction. Programs must not rely on one method to assess growth. Furthermore, development can best be evaluated in terms of the goals of the individual program as well as the more general objectives of public school education. Finally, there is need for longitudinal evaluation in order to acquire a more complete understanding of the long-term effects of optional programs.

When an optional program utilizes both internal and external evaluation, potential problems are reduced in number and scope. For example, comprehensive evaluation will indicate clearly that cognitive development is valued in optional alternatives. Therefore fewer individuals will equate option with a disregard for basic skill learning. Further, since evaluation tends to support credibility, fewer individuals will claim that the School Within a School is a passing fad. In addition, evaluation will clarify goals and objectives and will highlight particular ends which have not been satisfactorily met. Finally, teachers and parents involved in conventional programs within the school will more likely perceive the optional program as a legitimate educational environment if it values thorough evaluation.

The ultimate evaluation is consumer satisfaction. Yet the consumer must not provide the entire extent of evaluation. Optional alternatives must engage in various and vigorous methods of assessment to provide for self-improvement and credibility. This evaluation must include both affective and cognitive domains and be based on both formal and informal procedures. The evaluation should reflect both the goals of the program and the general public school objectives. A public institution has a responsibility to evaluate itself — its programs, leadership and students. In this age of accountability, it is an absolute necessity. If perceived in proper perspective, evaluation is an important instrument of self-improvement and growth.

Element 10. *Optional Alternatives Must Include Both Internal and External Evaluation.*

Summary

Chapter III has included an identification and description of elements characteristic of the SWS. The identified elements encourage effective implementation, solidify support, and facilitate operation by actively addressing the following factors: foundation and objectives (Element 1), size (Element 2), decision-making (Element 3), participation (Element 4), student population (Element 5), global perceptions (Element 6), cost (Element 7), placement procedures (Element 8), support system (Element 9), and evaluation (Element 10). In review, the 10 elements are the following:

Element 1. Optional Alternatives Must Have Theoretical Justification And Be Based On Comprehensive Objectives.
Element 2. Optional Alternatives Should Be Small In Size With Generally Fewer Than 350 Students.
Element 3. Administrators, Teachers, Students, And Parents Should Be Significantly Involved In Decisions Regarding The Implementation And Perpetuation Of The Optional Alternative.
Element 4. Teacher And Student Participation In The Optional Alternative Must Be Voluntary, Based On Choice Rather Than Fiat.
Element 5. Optional Alternatives Cannot Practice Exclusivity With Regard to Sex, Race, Religion Or Ethnic Background.
Element 6. All Programs Within The School Must Be Viewed As Legitimate Educational Environments.
Element 7. Optional Alternatives Should Be Developed And Operate On Cost Equal To, Or Less Than, The Conventional Program.
Element 8. Student Placement Decisions Should Be Based On The Recommendations Of Teachers, Administrators, Parents, And Students, With The Ultimate Authority Resting With The Parents.
Element 9. All Programs Within The School Must Have A Sup-

port System With The Principal Serving As The Central Foundational Support.

Element 10. Optional Alternatives Must Include Both Internal And External Evaluation.

A valuable next step is to examine a functioning School Within a School in terms of these elements. Chapter IV of this study investigates the Parmenter Elementary School in Arlington, Massachusetts, in an effort to relate theory to practice. The growth of Parmenter School is filtered through the identified list of elements, providing a documentation of the extent to which this school has acted consistently with these elements. This documentation will furnish increased support and clarification of these elements and contribute importantly to an integrated understanding of the School Within a School.

IV

PARMENTER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
A SCHOOL WITHIN A SCHOOL

Chapter III of this study described 10 important elements characteristic of the School Within a School. These identified elements address both the implementation and perpetuation of an optional alternative program. For the purpose of relating theory to practice, it is appropriate to examine a functioning School Within a School (SWS) in relation to the 10 elements. Such an examination will provide a more integrated understanding of the list of elements as well as Schools Within Schools in general.

Historical Context

In order to thoroughly examine Parmenter Elementary School as an example of a SWS, and in terms of the identified elements of Chapter III, it is appropriate to provide an historical account of the conception and implementation of the open classroom alternative. As in the case of most systems, its present operation is a function of its history.

Parmenter School, with an enrollment of 370 students, is located a few miles west of Boston, Massachusetts. The town population, approximately 50,000, is basically middle class, yet there is unusual socio-economic diversity. In addition, with 15 elementary schools, Arlington provides a school in virtually all town neighborhoods.

Parmenter's local community is an unusual one and contains both blue-collar workers and white-collar professionals. Populated by many Harvard, Tufts, and Boston University professors, as well

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as many manual laborers, the community is historically and currently somewhat polarized. Yet, as purported by former Arlington Superintendent of Schools, Bert Roens, the community "would do anything for the school" (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 1.)* Community members are consistently active in school activities.

In the spring of 1969, many Parmenter parents became fascinated with the concept of open education. They began reading articles in the *New Republic* by Joseph Featherstone, and attending lectures at Harvard University. Robert Stevenson, Principal of Parmenter, while gaining a personal interest in open education, encouraged parents to investigate this educational approach.

At the School Committee's monthly meeting in March of 1969, it was announced that, due to increased student enrollment, two classes from Parmenter School would be moved, one block away, and housed in the old Junior High Industrial Arts School (built in 1896). Although most of the community was unhappy with this news, many parents envisioned it as an opportunity to establish open educational environments at Parmenter.

With Associate Professor David Purpel of Harvard (a Parmenter parent) acting as a catalyst and change agent, groups of interested parents gathered, organized, and proposed that two kindergarten through second grade open classrooms be established and located at the Industrial Arts School. In the effort to educate and interest more individuals, the group collected literature, attended lectures, viewed films on the Leicestershire schools, and invited guest educators, knowledgeable of open education philosophy, to attend P.T.A. meetings.

The resulting five-page proposal, signed by more than 100 families and submitted to the School Committee, stated,

> We would like to suggest that the School Department use the opportunity presented by the overcrowding situation to develop an innovative program of early childhood education. The plan would do three things: (1) meet the building crisis, (2) provide a real and exciting choice for parents, (3) enable the whole town to benefit from this

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* Orton and Dickison provide a detailed account of the development of the open alternative at Parmenter in *Change to Open Education* (1972). Peter Orton was a teacher at Parmenter.

> educational exploration. (Proposal For An Open Classroom At Parmenter School, 1969, p. 2).

The Proposal then stated the desire to establish two kindergarten through second grade open classrooms in the Industrial Arts School, to serve as viable choice for parents. The Proposal stressed that no children would be forced to attend the open classrooms and added, "We are not suggesting that these principles of open education are better or more effective than traditional ones" (Proposal, 1969, p. 2).

Late in the Spring of 1969, the School Committee convened. Assistant Superintendent Anderson, a supporter of the Proposal, addressed the audience and, in a prepared statement, urged acceptance. Among other points, he stressed the concept of choice and added that after initial implementation costs, the open classrooms would cost no more than the conventional classrooms. Ultimately, the Committee voted unanimously to accept the Proposal.

Following the School Committee Meeting, Superintendent Roens met with the Parmenter faculty to assess their support of the accepted Proposal. A majority were in favor, although, according to Roens, there existed "some hostility on the part of a few" (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 8). Days later, many parents in the community met with the Superintendent and were adamantly opposed to the open education plan. Many "worried that, should the idea prove successful, the entire school might adopt the open plan" (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 9). In response, Roens explained that if they did not wish to participate, no one would coerce them. The entire plan was based on the concept of choice. Furthermore, Roens emphasized that there would always be a choice of classroom environments for Parmenter children.

The expressed concern and reluctance of some parents were intensified by a sense of threat on the part of several teachers. In discussions with these teachers, Principal Stevenson stressed the notion of choice for both students and teachers.

> I couldn't tell them often enough that the strength of our school is based on 'preference': preference for parents, preference for teachers, preference for the children. If we were all 'open', we'd be as rigid as if we were all 'traditional'. We need to have choice. It's in keeping with

> all our democratic principles. (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 10).

Several Parmenter teachers were interested in being considered for the two teaching positions in the open classrooms. A non-Parmenter teacher, experienced in Leicestershire classrooms, heard of the Parmenter plan and also expressed interest. (She was eventually hired.)

What had begun as a vague vision in the minds of a few Parmenter parents was evolving into a reality. But an unexpected major problem arose. It was discovered that, because they lacked a convenient emergency exit, the two intended classrooms in the Industrial Arts School were unsafe for five-year olds. The only feasible solution was to locate the two open classrooms in Parmenter School and place two upper grade classrooms in the Industrial Arts building.

According to the fire inspector, there were only two Parmenter rooms which could be utilized as environments for kindergarten children. The solution appeared simple, yet two veteran teachers had occupied those rooms for many years. Understandably, these teachers strongly resented the request to vacate their rooms to provide space for the open classrooms. Although they finally agreed, there was deep, emotional upset (Orton & Dickison, 1972).

During the summer of 1969, the two educators selected to teach the new open classrooms attended a four-week workshop on open education at the Shady Hill School in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The workshop was conducted in a manner similar to that of open classroom operation and included shared decision-making, use of manipulatives, and self-evaluation techniques.

With official approval of the Proposal, willingness of many parents and teachers to support the plan, and several problems at least temporarily extinguished, two kindergarten through second grade open classrooms began operation in September, 1969, just a few months after the birth of the vision. By providing open and traditional classrooms, Parmenter School was, for the first time, able to offer a degree of choice for teachers, students, and parents.

The funds allotted for initial supplies, materials, and furniture, $2,500, was not in excess of allotments for any new classroom in Arlington. But as new tables, bookcases, curriculum materials, etc. began to arrive, many of the traditional teachers "became acutely aware of their unfilled needs" (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p.

11). This undercurrent of resentment was magnified as a continual flow of newspaper reporters, school administrators, teachers, and other interested visitors arrived at Parmenter to observe the unique approach to education. "There was a 'new baby' at Parmenter, and it was attracting all the attention" (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 11). Although certainly not intended, a schism developed between the open and traditional teachers which was to continue for many years.

The differences between the open and traditional approaches were obvious to all. Specifically, in room design, scheduling, curriculum, grouping, evaluation (see Fantini's 1973 Deductive-Inductive Continuum in Chapter I), and in the students' and teachers' contribution to decision-making (see Bussis & Chittenden 1970 scheme in Chapter I), there were marked dissimilarities. In terms of Hunt's (1972) long-term objectives, any differences between the programs were more difficult to perceive. Many traditional teachers, simply not understanding this open approach, felt threatened by it as if they were to be consumed by its impact.

Differences in school rules contributed to this dichotomy between the educational programs (see Problems of the SWS in Chapter II). For example, some open classroom children were allowed to freely utilize the hallways for reading, games, or play rehearsals, among other activities, in contrast to the other children who used halls only as vehicles for transit. Furthermore, the higher sound level from the open classrooms caused several traditional teachers to close their doors, even in the hot weather, in order to operate their classrooms as they desired. One traditional teacher, feeling so threatened by the changes, retired as a result. Superintendent Roens concluded, "I don't think she would have left teaching if we had not instituted the new program" (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 15).

There were additional problems. Although many parents strongly supported the open environments, several questioned whether cognitive skill development was a priority in these classrooms. Differences in methods of reporting student evaluation were also evident. The open classroom teachers, rejecting the conventional report cards and grading system of "A" through "F", preferred to rely on more informal methods of evaluation which included anecdotal records and extensive parent conferencing.

Despite these apparent problems, the open program prospered and grew during the first several years of its existence. Additional open classrooms were progressively added at all grade levels, as a result of community support, interest, and the encouragement of Principal Stevenson. Mr. Stevenson's sincerity, dedication, and interest in the education of children were evident to all with whom he worked.

In 1973, a new, young principal, Paul Lamoureaux, was hired to replace retiring Robert L. Stevenson. Citing his perception that, in reality, there were really no traditional classes at Parmenter, Lamoureaux changed the label and began to refer to the once traditional classes as flexibly scheduled classrooms (FSC). Open classrooms (OC) retained their label.

As predicted, after the initial outlay of $2,500, expenses for the operation of the OC dropped until they required the same funding as the FSC. The basic consideration of choice for teachers, parents, and students has remained a cardinal foundation of Parmenter School. Yet the schism between the two programs continued. Since it was generally apparent only to insiders, many visitors to the school perceived Parmenter as "a model of innovation for other communities to watch and emulate" (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 15).

Present Organization of Parmenter School

Parmenter School offers a choice between open and flexibly scheduled (formally called traditional) environments at all grade levels. The organizational structure of Parmenter is illustrated in Figure 7.

As indicated in Figure 7, Parmenter's two programs are closely balanced in terms of student enrollment (198 students or 53 percent of student body in OC and 172 students or 47 percent in FSC), and number of faculty (9 teachers in OC and 8 teachers in FSC). All OC are vertically grouped (more than one grade within each classroom environment), while all FSC are horizontally grouped (one grade within each classroom environment). Figure 7 also illustrates that there are choices of OC within each grade level, yet there is no such choice in the FSC. (Although there are two flexibly scheduled kindergarten sessions, morning and afternoon, they are taught by the same teacher). Practically, this indicates that parents who desire

PARMENTER SCHOOL

Open Classrooms			Flexibly Scheduled Classrooms		
number	grade	enrollment	number	grade	enrollment
1	K-1	19	2 sessions	K	38
2	K-1-2	43	1	1	21
2	2-3	40	1	3	21
1	3-4	24	1	3	21
1	4-5	23	1	4	23
2	5-6	49	1	5	22
			1	6	26
	Totals 9 teachers 198 students (53%) K-6 grades			Totals 8 teachers 172 students (47%) K-6 grades	

Figure 7. Parmenter School Organization (1976)

to place their child in a flexibly scheduled classroom have no selection of classrooms within that type of learning environment at any grade level, whereas parents interested in the open classroom have a choice of at least two OC for their child, at any grade level. In fact, for a child attending second grade in an open environment, there are four possibilities (two classes with K-1-2 combination and two classes with a 2-3 combination). This suggests that while Parmenter provides a choice of learning environments, there is, in essence, unbalanced choice since there is only one FSC at each grade level.

Figure 8 illustrates the physical location of the 16 Parmenter classrooms. As discussed earlier in this chapter, the opportunity to establish open education at Parmenter grew out of overcrowded conditions which required that two classrooms be relocated 1/4 mile from Parmenter in the Industrial Arts School (renamed Central School). Over the years, with an increase in Parmenter's population, and growth of pupil personnel services which required additional Parmenter space, several more classes had to be relocated at Central School. Although the physical location of the classrooms vary, all are considered Parmenter classrooms and are under the leadership of Principal Lamoureaux.

PARMENTER SCHOOL

Parmenter's Main Building

OC		FSC	
number	grade	number	grade
1	K-1	2 sessions	K
2	K-1-2	1	1
2	2-3	1	2
		1	3

Total – 9 Classrooms

Central School Extension

OC		FSC	
number	grade	number	grade
1	3-4	1	4
1	4-5	1	5
2	5-6	1	6

Total – 7 Classrooms

Figure 8. Physical Location of Parmenter Classrooms (1976)

As indicated in Figure 8, Parmenter's main building houses nine classrooms (five OC and four FSC), kindergarten through third grade. Central School provides space for seven classrooms (four OC and three FSC), grades three through six.

Figures 7 and 8 depict the organization of Parmenter School. The numbers of classrooms, grade levels, enrollment, and physical location are illustrated in relation to the two learning environments—the open classrooms (OC) and the flexibly scheduled classrooms (FSC). This delineation of Parmenter's organization, coupled with the historical and evolutionary perspective, provide a useful foundation from which to examine the school's relationship to the 10 elements identified in Chapter III.

Parmenter School In Relation to the 10 Elements

Element 1. *Optional Alternatives Must Have Theoretical Justification And Be Based On Comprehensive Objectives.*

Parmenter School established open classrooms as an alternative to the more conventional learning environment. As discussed in

Chapter III of this study, open education has significant theoretical justification in the philosophies of Pestalozzi, Herbart, Dewey, and Piaget among others, and with the contemporary support of many, including Barth (1974), Blitz (1973), Kohl (1969), and Silberman (1970). Through readings, films, lectures, and discussions, the implementers of the OC were well aware of this theoretical justification. However, as previously discussed in this chapter, the implementers included only a few Parmenter teachers.

In terms of the need for a balanced set of affective-cognitive objectives within all classrooms, there has been a major effort exerted. In the summer of 1974, Principal Lamoureaux and five Parmenter teachers (three from OC and two from FSC) designed a new school curriculum for basic academic development, to be used by *all* the classrooms in Parmenter School. This curriculum, a synthesis of several other curricula, serves as a flexible guideline for teachers and is not intended as rigid and confining. There is considerable freedom for personal interpretation and application of process, although there are specific content expectations. This curriculum helps establish cognitive objectives which are common to all classes at the various grade levels.

With regard to affective development, there are no printed guidelines used. Lamoureaux reports that there is a greater value placed on affective growth in several of the OC. However, he states that there is no neglect of the affective domain in the FSC, based on his thorough observations and discussions. According to Lamoureaux, the relative value of both the affective and cognitive domains may vary from class to class, yet there are significant energies devoted to both areas by all teachers.

During interviews, two flexibly scheduled teachers stated that they stress cognitive development and sometimes slight the affective areas, while three open classroom teachers articulated emphasis on the affective areas which occasionally outweigh the cognitive. All interviewed teachers indicated that they value both areas of a child's development as integral to the curriculum. The following teachers' comments are typical of those on school curriculum:

> "I'm concerned with the child's total development academics and the growth of the child as an individual."
> (flexibly scheduled teacher)

> "Certainly, I try to look at emotional, social, and academic development — the complete picture." (open classroom teacher)

> "When I think of curriculum in this class, I think of the children and what will help them in a variety of ways — as students and basically as human beings." (flexibly scheduled teacher)

This consideration of the whole child addresses the ultimate aim of all learning environments, as discussed in Chapter I, i.e., self-direction and intra-interpersonal maturity. Concern for this long-term development is further represented in the following teachers' comments:

> "Everything we do in this class is designed to help these kids become responsible, knowledgeable, capable individuals." (open classroom teacher)

> "Years from now I would like to think that these children will have the skills, courage, and confidence. . .to make a positive contribution to the community — and I think they will." (flexibly scheduled teacher)

It must be noted that this concern for long-term development is difficult to verify. It is assumed that the consideration articulated by many teachers, both open and flexibly scheduled, for the long-term objectives, is, in fact, valued.

Observations of Parmenter classrooms revealed activities in both affective and cognitive domains. Cognitive based activities included many individual and group involvements in mathematics, reading, and science, among other areas. In addition, small group project experiences, integrating several academic areas, were evident in many classrooms.

Affective based activities were also numerous in both open and flexibly scheduled classes. They included role playing, "magic circle" style involvements, and creative movement. Furthermore, there was evidence of a general concern for, and building upon, the strengths of children. This was apparent in the positive reinforcement employed by the teachers. Typical of this approach were comments such as, "Kara, this is a beautifully written story —

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interesting and funny too" in a flexibly scheduled classroom and, written on the top of an open classroom student's math paper, "Wonderful Jon — 25 correct — you can help *me* teach decimals now." Interestingly, this researcher noticed *Focusing on the Strengths of Children* by Gambrell and Wilson (1973) on several teachers' desks.

Based on classroom observations and interviews with teachers and principal, this researcher concludes that, in general, there is an emphasis on both affective and cognitive domains and a focus on the overall aims of self-direction and intra-interpersonal maturity. Therefore, with open classroom's cohesive theoretical justification, and with comprehensive objectives in both open and flexibly scheduled classrooms, Parmenter School appears to be functioning in a manner consistent with Element 1.

Element 2. *Optional Alternatives Should Be Small In Size With Generally Fewer Than 350 Students.*

It is obvious that Parmenter School has acted consistently with Element 2. Parmenter's *entire* pupil enrollment is 370 students. In 1969, when open classrooms were established in the school, there were approximately 50 children placed in the open environment, an enrollment only 1/7 the size of the upper limit identified in Element 2. Yet, even with this small student body, many problems have surfaced which include a lack of communication, resentments, overexposure, and the development of a dichotomy between the open and traditional programs. It is apparent that a small optional alternative does not necessarily preclude internal problems. As indicated in Chapter III, the optimal size for an optional program varies from community to community. It is a function of the particular environment in which the option is to be established.

Presently, with 198 students, Parmenter's open program is still substantially within the upper limit identified in Element 2. Determined from discussions with the principal, teachers, school staff, and several parents, it is highly unlikely that the number of open classrooms will increase in the future. Stated clearly by one Parmenter parent, "What makes Parmenter special is that it offers a choice at all grade levels. I hope that never changes." It seems likely that Parmenter's community, respecting balanced choice at all grade levels, will not increase the number of open classrooms

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beyond the present number. Indeed, Parmenter is functioning in harmony with Element 2.

Element 3. *Administrators, Teachers, Students And Parents Should Be Significantly Involved In Decisions Regarding The Implementation And Perpetuation Of The Optional Alternative.*

As discussed in Chapter III, the advantages of employing a shared decision making approach include an increase in responsibility, identification, commitment and cooperation, as well as a potential decrease in hostility, stigma, territoriality, and competition between programs.

Both administrators and parents were involved in the implementation of the open classrooms at Parmenter School in 1969. If it were not for the drive and energy within the parent community, there would likely be no options available at Parmenter today. Yet there is evidence that teachers were not intimately involved in the decision-making process. As described earlier in this chapter's historical examination of Parmenter, it was not until official acceptance of the Proposal by the School Committee that the superintendent approached the Parmenter faculty to assess their interest and support. Superintendent Roens states, "I hoped the teachers would give it a try. But if not — if they felt it was not to the advantage of the pupils — we would throw it out" (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 8). Despite the fact that only a minority were opposed to the plan, it seems highly illogical to officially decide on a course of action and subsequently ask for the opinions of those affected by the decision. It is not surprising that several teachers reacted negatively.

For many Parmenter teachers, there was only limited understanding of open education philosophy. For others, not being involved in the decision-making process generated resentment and insecurity. One veteran teacher comments, "Nobody even asked us what we thought. I felt like a second-class citizen."

It must be noted that at least two Parmenter teachers did involve themselves in the planning for open education. However, this researcher could find no evidence to indicate that there was any concerted effort to involve the Parmenter faculty in the decisions creating the open alternative which was to radically affect their professional future.

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Shared decision-making was not largely employed at Parmenter School until 1973 when Paul Lamoureaux became principal, although the parents are historically vocal and actively involved in school activities. Perceiving a shared decision-making strategy as highly appropriate, Lamoureaux began to ask teachers to join him in the decision-making role. He encouraged teachers and parents to include students in placement decisions (discussed later in Chapter IV).

Lamoureaux strongly supports the effectiveness of the shared decision-making approach. For example, when there was need for a common school curriculum by grade level, this principal, with several teachers, worked many weeks designing it. Moreover, in his role as teacher evaluator, Lamoureaux and the teacher dialogue and jointly agree on the criteria to be used for evaluation.

Although Lamoureaux concedes that there are many school problems which he chooses to solve without consulting his faculty, he regards the shared decision-making approach as "extremely helpful" in administering this School Within a School.

In relation to Element 3, it is clear that administrators and parents were significantly involved in decisions regarding the implementation of the open education alternative. However, there is evidence to suggest that the teachers, as a group, were not consulted, or actively involved in the decision-making process. This lack of involvement planted the seeds of discontent and resentment. With regard to the perpetuation of the program, it is apparent that there is substantial respect for shared decision-making, which, under the leadership of Principal Lamoureaux, serves as the general mode of operation.

Element 4. *Teacher And Student Participation In The Optional Alternative Must Be Voluntary, Based On Choice Rather Than Fiat.*

The heart of the School Within a School is the concept of choice for both teachers and students. As delineated in Chapter III, this choice serves to increase the probability of compatible teaching and learning styles in a classroom, improve academic achievement, promote comfort for both teachers and students, facilitate the coexisting quality of the SWS, and encourage schools' consistency with American values and traditions.

Throughout the history of the open classroom option at Parmenter School, there are strong indications that the concept of choice was highly valued. Former Principal Stevenson maintained that choice was "the single strongest element" of the plan (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 3). The original 1969 Proposal states,

> The arrangement we recommend is one in which parents would have a choice — they might send their children to the regular classes. . .or to the experimental program which would be based on Open Education. (Orton & Dickison, 1972, p. 2).

Furthermore, former Superintendent Roen emphasized that there would always be a choice of programs at Parmenter. School administrators asserted that no teachers would be coerced into a program in which they felt uncomfortable.

The respect for voluntary participation has been maintained. Principal Lamoureaux articulates his support for choice and claims that it is the key to the functioning of Parmenter School. The teachers concur. One states, "I just think it is wonderful that we can provide this choice for the community and for us — I know I'm a lot happier." Another teacher adds, "I don't know what I'd do without this choice." This researcher conversed with a Parmenter parent who insisted that one of the primary reasons she moved into the Parmenter neighborhood was the school's providing selection of learning environments. The school secretary, who has worked at Parmenter since 1961, reports that she has talked to many parents who express similar rationale for moving to the Parmenter district. It is important to note the likelihood that such parents choose Parmenter for a particular program, rather than through attraction to choice in general. Certainly, many parents would be as content if only one program existed at the school. Likewise, several teachers would be satisfied with only one program. Yet many of the faculty insist that working in a school with more than one program promotes a stimulating atmosphere, encourages cooperation, and creates an exciting, dynamic environment in which to grow.

Principal Lamoureaux states that only once during his three years at Parmenter has choice of learning environments been denied to a student. On that occasion, Lamoureaux, teachers, and other school personnel were unanimous in their belief that the child belonged in a particular program, i.e., his learning style was most compatible with a particular learning environment. When the parents were notified that their choice could not be honored, they removed their child from the school. In all other instances during the past three years, there has ultimately been parent-school agreement on the placement of a child.

Since the inception of the open alternative at Parmenter School, there has been high regard for the concept of choice for both students and teachers. Based on conversations with Principal Lamoureaux, faculty, staff, parents, and with corroborating remarks by former Superintendent Roens and former Principal Stevenson, it is evident that participation in the optional open classroom program has historically and is currently based on choice rather than fiat, and therefore in harmony with Element 4.

Element 5. *Optional Alternatives Cannot Practice Exclusively With Regard To Sex, Race, Religion, Or Ethnic Background.*

The principle of equality in education suggests that optional programs must be open to all students in the school's community. As previously stated in Chapter III, options should neither deliberately nor unintentionally enroll students only with specific personal characteristics. Terrell's research indicates that, in fact, unintentional segregation by academic level and socio-economic background exists in the optional alternatives studied. Such segregation is anathema to American educational ideals.

Although there is a lack of statistical evidence to demonstrate unintentional exclusivity at Parmenter School, there are a multitude of indicators which suggest its probability. Dialogues with Principal Lamoureaux, faculty, school psychologist, and staff all point to an unintentional segregation by socio-economic background.

Principal Lamoureaux states that, in general, Parmenter parents of higher socio-economic levels place their children in the open program, while those of lower socio-economic strata select the flexibly scheduled classrooms. The faculty of Parmenter concur. One open classroom teacher reports that, "There is not one child in this class whose parents are not white collar workers." A flexibly scheduled teacher asserts that, "With the exception of just a few, all the parents in this class are middle or lower middle class blue collar workers." The school psychologist adds support to the probability of this unintentional segregation and claims that there is a "definite socio-economic cleavage" between the two programs.

Unfortunately, the school records, which would confirm or disprove this allegation, are not open files. This researcher was not permitted to examine these documents. However, there was no doubt expressed by any of the faculty, staff, or the principal that, socio-economically, there is a significant difference between the parents of students in the open and flexibly scheduled classrooms. Interestingly, with the exception of the school psychologist, no one verbalized concern over this apparent segregation.

It must be noted that there was no evidence to suggest exclusivity at Parmenter by any criterion other than socio-economic level.

If it can be assumed from the extensive discussions with Parmenter personnel that this school does practice unintentional exclusivity, then it has not acted consistently with Element 5 of this study, and therefore it is defeating an expressed purpose of the SWS experience: matching teaching and learning styles, thereby encouraging the optimal development of each child.

Element 6. *All Programs Within The School Must Be Viewed As Legitimate Educational Environments.*

Postman (1974) suggests that an important aim of the School Within a School is the perception of "a continuum of options rather than a hierarchy" (p. 62). Each program must be discerned as a valid educational environment. Chapter III clearly states that (1) this perception of a continuum of options is a major support structure of the SWS and, (2) the values placed on the various programs by the school administration and faculty will often determine the perceptions of the parents and children.

From data relating to Parmenter's history since 1969, there is indication that for many years the two programs were viewed in the nature of a hierarchy. Several teachers who were Parmenter faculty members from the time of the establishment of the open program indicate that, during those initial years, few teachers recognized the legitimacy of both programs. Specifically, many teachers in the traditional classrooms experienced feelings of superiority or inferiority. One such seasoned teacher remarks, "I just couldn't understand what they (the open teachers) were doing — and I knew that my way was better." Another traditional teacher experienced such insecurity that she was "brought to tears" by her confusion.

Several open classroom teachers express different viewpoints. One states, "In the beginning, I really believed that my way was the only way that kids really learn. I sort of looked down at some of the other classrooms."

There is also the suggestion that former Principal Stevenson himself may have attached higher value to one program during the initial years. Veteran teachers (both open and traditional) claim that Stevenson strongly favored the open classrooms. Although there are no documented illustrations of Stevenson's perceptions regarding the legitimacy of both programs, it is significant that veteran teachers believe that the former principal favored the open classrooms. For these teachers, the mere belief of such a notion created affective consequences.

There is strong evidence, based on conversations with faculty and Principal Lamoureaux, to suggest that the last two years have caused more individuals to perceive both programs as viable educational options. Lamoureaux contends that, "We are growing closer together as one faculty rather than two separate faculties." He insists that fewer teachers and parents view one program as superior. Many teachers express similar opinions. One open classroom teacher remarks, "We're beginning to see more and more good things happening in both programs." The physical education instructor adds, "They're all getting along much better. I don't hear, as I once did, teachers and kids putting down each other's programs." In other discussions with Parmenter teachers, similar responses indicate an increased recognition of the validity of both programs.

Almost all Parmenter personnel cite Principal Lamoureaux as the main factor in this growth. "He really feels it very important for people in both programs to support one another," asserts one open classroom teacher. A flexibly scheduled teacher suggests that, "Paul has really tried to help break down the polarization that once existed. I think he's really succeeding." Another claims, "I definitely see value in both programs. Paul truly supports both."

Principal Lamoureaux has worked vigorously to decrease the dichotomy between the programs at Parmenter. In December, 1974, with increased enrollment and with additional classroom

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space available at Central School, Lamoureaux proposed that kindergarten through grade three, open and flexibly scheduled classrooms, be located at Parmenter, and grades four through six at Central. A few teachers and parents suggested locating open kindergarten through grade six at Central and flexibly scheduled kindergarten through grade six at Parmenter. Lamoureaux, fearing a further divided faculty, insisted on his plan. Ultimately, the decision was made by the Arlington Fire Marshall who once again would not permit young children in Central School because of several building design inadequacies. However, the efforts are an indication of Lamoureaux's desire to increase sharing, cooperation, and understanding between the two programs, thereby facilitating the perception of two valid educational environments. Indeed, this notion of two viable, complementary programs appears to be assimilating the thinking of the faculty.

Although the first several years of the open classroom existence at Parmenter did not appear to render perceptions of both programs as legitimate options, conversations with school personnel now indicate that growth has evolved in the direction indicated in Element 6. Principal Lamoureaux appears to have played a major role in this growth.

Element 7. *Optional Alternatives Should Be Developed And Operate On Cost Equal To, Or Less Than, The Conventional Program.*

Although seemingly a less essential factor than others, Element 7 is procedurally highly important. Especially in the 1970's economy, the high cost of a new optional alternative may thwart its implementation indefinitely.

In 1969, when the open classroom program was established at Parmenter, the cost factor was not yet a basic survival ingredient. After the initial developmental costs of $2,500 per classroom, the open classrooms began to operate on cost equal to that of the flexibly scheduled classrooms. As indicated in Chapter III, modest funds are often necessary to plan and develop any new program.

Presently, according to Principal Lamoureaux, all Parmenter classrooms are allotted the same yearly budget. Several teachers choose to order fewer supplies and therefore utilize only a portion of their budget, yet all classrooms operate under the same cost

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guidelines. In this respect, Parmenter has acted in conformance with Element 7.

Element 8. *Student Placement Decisions Should Be Based On The Recommendations of Administrators, Teachers, Parents, And Students, With The Ultimate Authority Resting With The Parents.*

An important focus discussed in Chapter I states the intent to compatibly match teaching and learning styles within the classroom environment. The decision of where to place a particular student is essential to a compatible match. Element 8 urges the employment of a shared decision-making approach to placement procedures, with the parents maintaining ultimate authority.

Principal Lamoureaux indicates his strong support for a shared decision-making strategy for placement decisions. It is consistent with his general mode of administrating. He states that, in all cases, there is need to examine the perceptions and suggestions of several individuals, including school personnel and parents. In conversations, Parmenter teachers add detailed accounts of active involvements in placement decisions. Several parents describe their appreciation in having the input and concern of the principal, school specialists, as well as the classroom teacher, in placement decisions.

Although there is a shared decision-making approach to placement decisions, Parmenter does not employ a standardized procedure based on specified criteria for placements. Generally, unless there are new, specific parent or teacher suggestions, a child will continue in the same program (open or flexibly scheduled) for successive years. If there is a new recommendation, teacher and parents discuss the options and jointly come to a decision. Commonly, the principal, the student, and other teachers are consulted in this procedure. According to Lamoureaux, if after several conferences there remains a disagreement concerning placement between the school (administration and faculty) and the parent, the school retains the ultimate authority. This retention of ultimate decision-making power by the school is in conflict with Element 8 which assigns this power to the parents.

Interestingly, Lamoureaux questions Parmenter policy and expresses "mixed emotions about it, because, in the long run, have we really set up a good situation for the child?" It is important to note that only once in Lamoureaux's principalship did the school utilize its final placement authority. As previously indicated in this Chapter, on that occasion the parents removed their child from the school rather than allow the school to dictate the placement.

Based on discussions with Parmenter personnel and parents, it is apparent that, as supported in Element 8, a shared decision-making approach to student placement is practiced at the school. However, Parmenter's custody of final placement authority is inconsistent with Element 8.

Element 9. *All Programs Within The School Must Have A Support System With The Principal Serving As The Central Foundational Support.*

A School Within a School, like any complex organization, needs a leader who serves to guide, support, and reinforce. The principal is essential for providing this support system and facilitating the coexistence of the various programs within the school. As indicated in Chapter III, a fundamental strategy, helpful in this role, is positive reinforcement.

From all indications, Principal Lamoureaux acts in a manner highly consistent with Element 9. His sincerity, knowledge and support for both programs at Parmenter is attested to by faculty, staff, and parents. Whereas evidence suggests that former Principal Stevenson may have supported the open program occasionally at the expense of the traditional, the core of Lamoureaux's support system is his perception of two equally valid programs. "I try to indicate my strong support for both programs at annual 'State of the School' reports," Lamoureaux insists.

Teachers describe their feeling of support. In fact, one open classroom teacher states, "There has been such great support from Paul that I decided to teach another year simply to work with him." Another open classroom teacher reports, "Paul is always giving me positive feedback and constructive suggestions." A flexibly scheduled teacher claims, "I know he's behind me with praise, suggestions, resources, and a smile."

Certainly, not all Parmenter teachers indicate they are experiencing the same degree of support. Although it is Lamoureaux's stated intention to encourage growth through positive reinforcement, one open classroom teacher remarks, "There is more support than a few years ago, but still not enough." "I think he supports what I do but I'm not 100 percent sure," adds a flexibly scheduled teacher.

As delineated in Chapter III, the effort to establish a constructive support system must be founded upon an awareness of the potential problems described in Chapter II, which include territoriality, differences in rules, and program labeling. By his stated desire to maintain open and flexibly scheduled classrooms at both Parmenter and Central, by establishing a uniform set of rules for *all* children to follow when not in their classrooms, and by recognizing the dangers of labeling programs, Lamoureaux has addressed these problems and others. Clearly expressed by the faculty, there is a strong support system at Parmenter, managed by the principal, which suggests consistency with Element 9.

Element 10. *Optional Alternatives Must Include Both Internal and External Evaluation.*

Although the ultimate evaluation for an optional program is its acceptability by the community, there is need for a variety of evaluative instruments, formal and informal, to assess both affective and cognitive growth. As discussed in Chapter III, this assessment must include internal and external evaluation and be based on the objectives of the individual program as well as the more standard goals of public education.

Rather than evaluating the two Parmenter programs independently, Principal Lamoureaux focuses on assessing individual teacher growth. Both open and flexibly scheduled teachers are evaluated in the same manner, yet not necessarily by the same criteria. At a pre-observational conference, Lamoureaux and teacher convene, share objectives and ideas, and jointly determine the criteria to be assessed. Following an observation in the classroom, principal and teacher again conference and discuss the observation in terms of the predetermined criteria.

With regard to the evaluation of the Parmenter children, a variety of approaches are employed by both programs and include: accumulating anecdotal records, employing conventional tests in basic academic areas, observing, listening and examining children's work. Lamoureaux reports, "I encourage teachers to use a variety of methods and not to rely on just one."

In reporting perceived growth to both the children and their parents, discussions with the faculty reveal a difference between the two programs. Many open classroom teachers prefer to write a general comment to indicate development in academic areas. Teachers' comments on students' papers typically read, "a wonderful job—I enjoyed reading your story" or "good work, Bill — you only missed two." Others simply have a check mark on the top of the paper. Many flexibly scheduled teachers opt for the letter grades "A" through "F", and number grades indicating percentages correct, such as "90 percent," as well as writing general comments similar to the ones of the open classroom teachers. In addition, several teachers in both programs conference with children to discuss their growth.

All teachers conference with the parents a minimum of twice a year. Prior to 1976, formal report cards were officially issued only in the flexibly scheduled classrooms. Now, for the first time, all open programs will be required to send home an end-of-the-year report, although, according to Lamoureaux, its form has yet to be determined. (It should be noted that many open classroom teachers have as many as four, five, or six parent conferences in lieu of the final report card.)

Finally, all children were administered the Stanford Reading Test for the last two years. Interestingly, results indicate no significant difference between the two programs at equal grade levels.

From discussions and observations, it appears that the Parmenter faculty employ a variety of evaluative instruments to assess student development. There are indications of an abundance of internal evaluation in both affective and cognitive domains. External evaluation, however, is at present limited to the Stanford Reading Test and at least one open classroom teacher's utilization of parent feedback sheets to evaluate conferencing. No outside agencies are involved in formal or informal assessment. To the degree that there is substantial internal evaluation, Parmenter is acting in harmony with Element 10. But the limited external evaluation of both programs and individuals suggests only partial compliance with Element 10, which calls for external as well as internal evaluation.

Summary

Chapter III described 10 elements characteristic of the School Within a School. In Chapter IV, Parmenter School, a SWS which offers choice of learning environments, is filtered through the identified elements. This action provides an understanding of the extent to which Parmenter School is acting consistently with these elements. Figure 9 illustrates Parmenter's consistency.

Column one, labeled "Consistent," implies that the expressed intent of the element is demonstrated.

Column two, labeled "Partially Consistent ," implies that, although some respect is demonstrated for the expressed intent of the element, more thorough compliance is necessary to produce the total, desired outcome.

Column three, labeled "Inconsistent," implies that the expressed intent of the element is not demonstrated.

CONSISTENT	PARTIALLY CONSISTENT	INCONSISTENT
Foundation & Objectives-1	Decision Making-3	Student Population-5
Size-2	Global Perceptions-6	
Participation-4	Placement Procedures-8	
Costs-7	Evaluation-10	
Support System-9		

Figure 9. The Extent To Which Parmenter School Has Acted Consistently With Identified Elements.

As clearly illustrated in Figure 9, Parmenter has acted consistently with five elements.

Foundation and Objectives - Element 1. The open classroom has abundant theoretical justification, understood by the participating teachers, and is based on a comprehensive objective.

Size - Element 2. This optional alternative has an enrollment of only 198 students — many fewer than the stated upper limit of 350 students.

Participation - Element 4. Teacher and student participation in the open classroom program is voluntary and based on choice.

Cost - Element 7. The open classroom program has developed and operates on cost equal to the flexibly scheduled classrooms.

Support System - Element 9. With Principal Lamoureaux as the core of the system, both programs experience support.

Parmenter's operation has been partially consistent with four elements as represented in Figure 9.

Decision-Making - Element 3. Although there currently appears to be a shared decision-making approach in evidence, this was not always the case. There was no concerted effort to involve teachers in the original proposal for establishment of the optional alternative at Parmenter.

Global Perceptions - Element 6. Many in Parmenter's population view both the open and flexibly scheduled classrooms as legitimate educational environments. Yet there continue to be many other teachers, parents, and children who perceive their program as superior. Since Principal Lamoureaux highlights the validity of both programs, growth is occurring.

Placement Procedures - Element 8. Student placement decisions are based on the recommendations of teachers, administrators, parents, and students. Although the ultimate authority rests with the school, rather than the parents, Principal Lamoureaux is beginning to question the wisdom of such procedure.

Evaluation - Element 10. Parmenter employs a variety of evaluative instruments to assess growth. Yet, evaluation is primarily internal.

Figure 9 illustrates Parmenter inconsistency with one element.

Student Population - Element 5. There is strong indication that Parmenter School practices unintentional segregation by socio-economic background. Parents of higher socio-economic levels most often place their children in the open classrooms and those of lower socio-economic strata choose the flexibly scheduled classrooms.

It is apparent from Chapter IV that Parmenter School has often acted consistently with the identified elements. In areas where partial consistency is indicated, there is often evidence of movement toward full compliance. Finally, there are a multitude of indicators which suggest unintentional segregation by socio-economic background, inconsistent with Element 5. Implications of this segregation and other findings, as well as recommendations for further research, are discussed in Chapter V.

V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Globally, the purpose of this study has been to examine how our public school system can actively respect the diverse, pluralistic society it serves. Specifically, the intent of this study was three-part: (1) to explore the professional research and literature on alternative public education, with focus on Schools Within Schools, (2) to distill from the research and literature a list of elements characteristic of, and useful for, the implementation and perpetuation of optional alternative programs, and (3) to utilize this list of elements as a filter through which the evolution of Parmenter School's open alternative could be examined.

Chapter V summarizes the findings of this study through a synthesis of the elements identified in Chapter III, and in relation to the investigation of Parmenter School, as related in Chapter IV. Implications of this study are delineated and recommendations for further research are suggested.

A central underpinning of the School Within a School (SWS) is stated in Element 6 of this study: *all programs within the school must be viewed as legitimate educational environments.* Clearly asserted by Postman (1974), there must be "a continuum of options, rather than a hierarchy" (p. 62). In several ways, the relative success of a SWS can be determined by an examination of the values which the school population and surrounding community place on the various educational programs within the school.

The implications of a school viewed as offering a continuum of options are important and include increased sharing, cooperation, respect, and support. This is a key to a successful SWS. To neglect the encouragement of such perceptions is to invite internal discord which, as in the case of Parmenter's School's early years, will manifest itself in hostility, resentment, and mutual distrust.

As asserted in Chapter III, it is not sufficient for administrators and faculty to simply understand the legitimate quality of each program. There has to be continual and vigorous articulation and documentation of this belief for it to assimilate the thinking and behavior of children and their parents. At formal and informal teachers' meetings, parent-teacher organization gatherings, school committee meetings, and in daily school interactions, there is need for demonstrating that, in fact, each program is a viable alternative.

If options are to be perceived in this manner, particular strategies and procedures are necessary. Such reinforcing factors encourage individuals to view all programs as legitimate. One such factor is identified in Element 1 of this study: *optional alternatives must have theoretical justification and be based on comprehensive objectives.*

If the school population and the community are keenly aware of the theoretical justification, balanced set of affective-cognitive objectives and common long-term aims of all programs, desired perceptions are greatly facilitated. Such awareness is a mammoth step beyond simple existence. Parmenter School illustrates this distinction.

Parmenter's open program, as discussed in Chapter IV, has theoretical justification and strives for these comprehensive objectives. However, this justification and set of objectives were not perceived by the entire Parmenter faculty, or by the parent community. Although the theoretical support and objectives existed, there was insignificant effort exerted to share this information and thereby educate individuals as to the legitimacy of the open program. As a result of this neglect, many parents and several Parmenter teachers did not understand the philosophy of open education and therefore felt threatened by its existence. Their insecurity generated hostility and distrust. These attitudes, in turn, assimilated the thinking of many children and parents, and contributed to development of a dichotomy between programs which permeated Parmenter School for many years. Only in the last few years is there evidence of a growing, binding force which encourages coexistence. The scars of this dichotomy, still apparent, fade very slowly.

It is clear that simple existence of theoretical justification and comprehensive objectives are not sufficient. In order to encourage the perception of equally valid learning environments, it is incumbent upon administrators and faculty to develop strategies and procedures which educate the school community.

As discussed in Chapter I, both a child's contemporaneous (immediate) and developmental (long-term) needs must be addressed in all learning environments. They are the focus of the comprehensive objectives.

The shared decision-making approach also serves to enhance acceptance of program legitimacy. As suggested in Element 3: *administrators, teachers, students and parents should be significantly involved in decisions regarding the implementation and perpetuation of the optional alternative.* Certainly, by involving this team of individuals in decision-making, increased understanding of the new program is fostered. As described in Chapter III, other advantages of this approach include increased responsibility, identification, and commitment; promotion of cooperation and communication; and a lessening of competition and territoriality between programs. These advantages facilitate shaping of the desired perception. Furthermore, not to involve individuals in decisions which affect their lives can render perception of the programs in the nature of a hierarchy. Again, Parmenter School provides illustration.

Resulting from absence of teacher involvement in the development of the open program, many individuals began to resent the program and hold ambivalent feelings toward those associated with it. As discussed in Chapter IV, the Arlington Superintendent sought the advice and involvement of the faculty only after the proposal had been officially accepted by the school committee. It seems somewhat hypocritical to announce a course of action and simultaneously ask people if they desire it. A novice student of logic could have predicted the reaction. Many teachers experienced anxiety, insecurity, and as one states, "I felt like a second-class citizen."

The lack of faculty involvement in the decisions which served to develop the open alternative at Parmenter caused significant emotional distress which, even many years later, continues to adversely affect the operation of the school. As one teacher states, "how can I forget something which hurt us so deeply?" Had the teachers been actively involved at the onset, there would likely have been less of a dichotomy created, and a more equal estimation of the programs.

The use of shared decision-making should be extended to placement decisions as well. Stated in Element 8: *student placement designs should be based on the recommendations of teachers, parents, and students, with the ultimate authority resting with the parents.* Selection of an educational environment best suited to a child's needs is an immensely important decision and one which requires the input of several individuals. It can be assumed that one of the reasons Parmenter's placement procedures have been so successful in terms of school-parent agreement on the learning environment is the fact that placement decisions involve the parents and students, as well as the school personnel. When parents are pleased with a placement, it is likely that the child will experience support at home. Furthermore, the child will feel more satisfied in the classroom environment. These outcomes relate directly to the concept of choice, which is at the heart of the School Within a School.

Element 4 states: *teacher and student participation in the optional alternative must be voluntary, based on choice rather than fiat.* Consistent with the shared decision-making approach is voluntary participation in an alternative program. This approach to participation actively involves both the student and the teacher. Providing choice is in harmony with our American heritage and is integral to many of our freedoms. When students choose the environment in which they are to learn, they are more motivated than students not involved in such decisions. Perhaps the most outstanding advantage of choice is the encouraging of compatible teaching and learning styles within the classroom environment.

Choice is not unlimited. As Element 5 asserts: *optional alternatives cannot practice exclusivity with regard to sex, race, religion, or ethnic background.* If there is evidence of exclusivity, it is the obligation of the school administrators to act decisively to end this segregation. Certainly, racial segregation is readily identified. However, other types of segregation, equally destructive of quality education, are often undetected. In the case of Parmenter School, there is abundant evidence to suggest socio-economic segregation. Parmenter's principal is only superficially aware of the exclusivity. Unless the administrator is cognizant of the possibility and danger of exclusivity, there is increased probability of its occurence and growth. As with any freedom, there must be established procedures to identify deliberate or unintentional abuse. Freedoms are not absolute.

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If the optional program practices exclusivity, whether deliberate or unintentional, it promotes the likelihood of individuals viewing the options in the form of a hierarchy. In fact, exclusive options do not provide equally viable learning environments. Moreover, such segregation is contrary to American educational ideals. It is the responsibility of the principal to create procedures for thorough examination of enrollment, to prevent occurences of exclusivity.

As previously discussed in this Chapter, the principal is instrumental in facilitating the perception of a continuum of options. A major role of this administrator is provision of support. Element 9 states: *all programs within the school must have a support system with the principal serving as the central foundational support.* The principal must seek to guide, reinforce, and support the coexistence of all programs. Through such energies, teachers, parents, and children will be encouraged to recognize the common validity of all programs.

Parmenter School provides a useful example of the influence of this administrator. Principal Lamoureaux has worked intensively to support both programs and thereby highlight their legitimacy. Only in the last few years, with this concerted administrative effort, has there been growth in the desired direction. Many teachers attribute that growth to the determination of their principal.

Procedures of evaluation can also contribute to encouraging the perception of a continuum of learning environments. Element 10 asserts: *optional alternatives must include both internal and external evaluation.* A variety of instruments are useful in assessing student growth and program development. Evaluation can serve to demonstrate growth or deficiency in both affective and cognitive domains, thereby assuring the school community that there is focus on both concerns.

In the case of Parmenter School, the Stanford Reading Test, administered to all children, indicated no significant difference between the open and flexibly scheduled programs. These results quieted many of the criticisms directed toward the open classrooms. This one example of external evaluation encouraged individuals to view both programs as valid.

Both the size and cost of an optional alternative may also influence the perceptions of the school community. Element 2 indicates: *optional alternatives should be small in size with generally fewer than 350 students.* Beyond a particular number of students, communication within a program and between programs becomes more difficult. Options begin to operate in a more isolated context and mutual understanding and respect may be sacrificed.

Unequal cost requirements may have similar consequences. Element 7 suggests: *optional alternatives should be developed and operate on cost equal to, or less than, the conventional program.* This cost factor is a delicate ingredient. In Parmenter's case, even though the open classrooms received the same initial allotment as any new classroom, jealousies and resentments grew as new furniture and materials arrived for the open program. Such reaction may indicate the need for additional support of conventional programs when a new alternative is implemented. Certainly, unequal funding can have disastrous effects, causing a breakdown in communication and planting the seeds of animosity.

Central to this Chapter, major effort must be placed on encouraging the entire school community to perceive the validity of all educational environments (Element 6). Several contributing factors facilitate this direction. They include: educating individuals about the optional programs' theoretical justification and comprehensive objectives (Element 1); establishing optional programs with small enrollments (Element 2); applying a shared decision-making approach to development and operation (Element 3), as well as to student placement decisions (Element 8); maintaining voluntary participation (Element 4); forbidding the formation of exclusive programs (Element 5); requiring modest funding for development and operation, similar to the conventional program (Element 7); establishing a strong support system with principal as leader (Element 9); and employing a variety of internal and external evaluative instruments (Element 10).

In isolation, each of these elements may have limited potency. However, with all 10 elements integrally involved in the development and operation of an optional alternative, the benefits include: efficient and effective utilization of time, funds, and other resources; encouragement of the coexistence of programs; and respect for the diverse, pluralistic quality of society.

Emphasized in Chapter II, innovation in public education is highly complex. Thus, the 10 elements identified in Chapter III are not to be assumed as a series of simple steps leading to a successful SWS. Rather, they are intended as objectives which can help guide and assist. As objectives, the 10 elements provide constructive

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direction for the innovation and are thereby potentially useful, even if never fully achieved.

The following four factors are cardinal in nature and merit emphasis:

(1) *All* programs within the school must be viewed as legitimate educational environments (Element 9).

(2) The principal and faculty are prime facilitators of this desired perception.

(3) A shared decision-making approach is highly appropriate to develop and operate an optional alternative. Failure to utilize this general procedure of decision-making may encourage members of the school population to perceive the programs in the form of a hierarchy.

(4) Unintentional segregation by socio-economic level, race, religion, etc., is a possible derivative of providing choice of learning environments. The school principal must be actively aware of the possibility and potential dangers of such segregation.

Recommendations for Further Research

The interest in Schools Within Schools is growing rapidly in this country. However, there is limited understanding of factors which facilitate the implementation and perpetuation of optional programs within a school. Unfortunately, children are the innocent victims of mismanaged and poorly developed educational innovations. Additional research is needed to help guide the development and operation of the School Within a School and thereby encourage the compatible matching of teaching and learning styles, for the ultimate benefit of our children.

The following recommendations are provided to encourage and guide additional research and investigation into the development and operation of schools with coexisting alternative programs:

(1) This study focused on one example of a School Within a School. An important next step could involve the selection of many Schools Within Schools to filter through the identified elements. Such a comparative study would serve to support, clarify, eliminate, or alter the 10 elements.

(2) Chapter V stresses the important perception of equally valid learning environments. It would be highly useful to develop an

instrument for measuring the perceptions held by a school's teachers, parents, children, and administrators.

(3) Element 1 emphasizes the need for a comprehensive set of affective-cognitive objectives directed toward the ultimate aim of self-direction and intra-interpersonal maturity. Additional research is needed to develop specific procedures to measure the objectives of programs, in order to determine the extent to which they are balanced between affective and cognitive domains.

(4) Element 8 grants final placement authority to the parents. Parmenter School retained this ultimate authority. A next step could focus on this notion of final authority, and, through an examination of Schools Within Schools, contrast the effects of both approaches.

(5) A goal of the School Within a School is to compatibly match teaching and learning styles. Hunt (1972) documents a matching procedure. Further research is greatly needed to establish additional procedures by which the styles of both teachers and students can be identified and optimally matched.

(6) This study discussed the effectiveness of a shared decision-making approach. Additional research could specifically examine the decision-making process in many Schools Within Schools, to determine the effect of shared decision-making procedures on teachers, parents, children, and administrators.

(7) The size of an optional alternative is asserted to be an important factor which affects the development and operation of the program. Further study could focus on this size factor and examine Schools Within Schools in an effort to identify the criteria which determine a particular school's upper enrollment limit.

(8) Terrell's research indicates unintentional segregation by academic level and socio-economic background. This study suggests strong evidence of socio-economic segregation at Parmenter School. Further research is strongly suggested to statistically determine the extent to which Schools Within Schools practice exclusivity.

(9) Detailed examination is needed of Schools Within Schools which practice deliberate or unintentional segregation to determine and analyze the implications of such exclusivity in terms of teacher attitudes and student affective and cognitive development.

(10) A most appropriate study could document the development of an optional alternative, based on the 10 elements identified in Chapter III of this study.

The notion that Schools Within Schools can provide learning environments which address the diverse, pluralistic quality of our society is indeed exciting. Through an examination of this educational direction, this study has sought to clarify and refine existing information, as well as extend our knowledge and operation of the School Within a School.

Professional educators must continually strive to refine existing methods and theories and to design vital innovations which address the various needs of our children. The School Within a School takes a dynamic step in this direction and is a highly significant development in public school education.

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